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SOCIAL SERVICES IN BRITAIN

CENTRAL OFFICE OF INFORMATION REFERENCE PAMPHLET **3**

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SOCIAL SERVICES IN BRITAIN

LONDON

HER MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE

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INTRODUCTION

BRITAIN'S social services cover a wide range of provisions to promote the health and well-being of the people and to improve the surroundings in which they live. They have developed with the recognition that the community as a whole has a responsibility both to help its weaker and less fortunate members and to secure for all citizens those services which they cannot provide by themselves as individuals.

To give a fuller picture of the provisions that exist to promote social welfare, this pamphlet outlines¹ not only the activities most commonly referred to as 'the social services'—social security, health services, the care of the old, the disabled, and children lacking families, together with education, housing and town and country planning—but also the facilities for promoting good working conditions and helping people to get work, the treatment of offenders against the law, and the provision of legal aid and advice to people without the financial means to defend themselves in court or obtain justice.

Nearly all the services now in being were pioneered by voluntary organisations, especially the churches, and many voluntary services still surround and supplement those publicly and statutorily provided.² The two types are not competitive but complementary, and merge into each other. Public authorities often work through voluntary authorities specially adapted to serve individual needs, and officials co-operate with the workers of the many social service societies.

The administration of the public services normally takes one of two forms. First, there are services provided directly through central government departments which make local contact with individuals through a network of local offices. Such are the employment and social security services provided by the Ministry of Labour, the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance and the National Assistance Board in Great Britain, and, in Northern Ireland, the Ministry of Health and Social Services and the Northern Ireland National Assistance Board.³ (Northern Ireland has its own separate Parliament and ministries for domestic affairs.) Second, there are services which are administered on a local basis by local authorities⁴ but for which the ultimate responsibility rests with central government departments. These are education, health and welfare, housing and town and country planning, and the welfare of children lacking family care, which are the concern in England and Wales of the Department of Education and Science, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Housing and Local Government and Home Office respectively, in Scotland of the Scottish Office, and in Northern Ireland of the appropriate Northern Ireland ministries. In addition, the treatment of offenders is a responsibility of the Home Office, Scottish Office and Northern Ireland Ministry of Home Affairs who are responsible also for the various institutions to which offenders may be sent. In every case ultimate responsibility

¹For more detailed information, see the COI reference pamphlets describing individual services.

²A voluntary society is one which owes its existence to individuals or groups, not to the State, and decides its own policy. A statutory body is one set up by Act of Parliament in order to carry out certain defined functions of government and administration.

³It is proposed to establish a Ministry of Social Security (see Appendix I) and in Northern Ireland to absorb the National Assistance Board of Northern Ireland into the Ministry of Health and Social Services.

⁴Or specially constituted local committees, boards or councils.

rests with a Minister who is answerable in the appropriate Parliament, and only Parliament can give authority to undertake any new service.

Although Britain has such a range of services to promote social welfare, it is recognised that the task is never completed. Some problems remain to be solved and new ones are constantly emerging. Economic conditions can retard or facilitate expansion and improvement of the services and the very successes achieved in preserving life and raising standards lead to further pressures on health, housing, education and other services. Argument and discussion continue as to what are the best ways of organising and financing the services described in this pamphlet, and how they need to be adapted to meet the developing needs of the people of Britain.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE SOCIAL SERVICES

THE EARLIEST social services in Britain were provided by various religious orders, augmented in medieval times by the manor houses and merchant and craft guilds, which took upon themselves as part of their duties and responsibilities the care of the sick and the destitute. This custom fell into disuse with the decay of the feudal system and the dissolution of the monasteries. By the end of the sixteenth century it had become imperative to find some substitute for the old system. In 1601, therefore, the Poor Law Act was passed, which made it incumbent upon the local authorities in England and Wales to provide from local rates for the sick, the needy and the homeless. A similar Act had been passed in Scotland in 1579. Thus was established the principle that the care of the poor was a necessary part of the social organisation of the State.

The treatment of offenders was recognised as a function of the State comparatively early and became increasingly so, after the Norman Conquest, when the authority of the State became more and more concentrated in the hands of the King. As it was accepted that crimes were committed against the sovereign and the community, punishment came to be based less on the principle of restitution than of providing a deterrent to crime. From Tudor times minor offences were punished with fines, flogging and public humiliation in the stocks or the pillory; more serious crimes were punishable by death (transportation overseas was added as an alternative from the seventeenth century).

The greatest contribution to the social services during the next 200 years came not from the State but from private sources. The eighteenth century, while witnessing a striking evolution in scientific and social outlook, leading to greater humanitarianism in politics, was remarkable more for the achievements of philanthropists and evangelists than for any measures of State-inspired reform.

During the eighteenth century—between 1720 and 1750—11 of London's great voluntary hospitals were founded, as well as 37 in the provinces and 9 in Scotland. In education, the charity schools, established mainly through the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, did some excellent work; while the Sunday schools, founded in 1780, began their fight against illiteracy by teaching reading, writing and sometimes 'ciphering'; in preventive medicine, men such as Dr. Richard Mead, Dr. John Pringle and Dr. James Lind succeeded in bringing about much-needed sanitary reforms in the navy, the army, and to a lesser extent in industrial undertakings. The early prison reformers, John Howard and Elizabeth Fry, sought to better conditions in the jails, where prisoners were held awaiting execution or transportation, and William Tuke was experimenting with the care of the mentally ill at The Retreat, York, by gentle methods without the forcible constraint generally applied to the unfortunates locked up in 'madhouses'—when they were not left to fend for themselves or rely on the Poor Law.

The Industrial Revolution and After

The urban and industrial development of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries exacerbated old problems and created new ones. The Poor Law, progressive in its day, was becoming increasingly inadequate to relieve economic distress. Help was provided by this time mainly through maintenance in the workhouses ('poor houses' in Scotland) where old and young,

sick and well, were all mixed together. Only for old soldiers and sailors was there maintenance among their own kind and with some dignity in the two 'hospitals'¹ founded by Royal charity in the seventeenth century or in their own homes by means of 'out-pensions' from the hospital authorities. The workhouses were administered on the principle, enunciated in 1834, of 'less eligibility', that is, that the standard of accommodation and nourishment must be poorer than that of the meanest independent person, so as to discourage wilful idleness. It was not yet appreciated how far unemployment could be due to economic forces beyond an individual's control. The efforts of isolated men and women outraged by the effect of conditions in mines and factories and in the fast-growing industrial towns on the people who lived and worked there had to overcome both selfish interests and suspicion, on principle, of State interference before community action to improve matters became possible.

In some matters, notably those connected with industrial health and welfare, the State accepted a measure of responsibility at a comparatively early stage, so that voluntary provision became supplementary, and subject to a certain amount of statutory control. In others, such as education and, later, maternity and child welfare, the State and private organisations continued for years as equal or almost equal partners. The law gave local authorities power to organise and operate services, but it did not compel them to do so; as a general rule voluntary associations were given every encouragement, including grants from the public purse, to carry on their work.

An Act of 1802 marked the beginning of factory legislation, and in 1833 the first substantial Factory Act was passed. This Act limited hours of work for children and set up a national system of inspection. The Act of 1847 set a maximum of ten hours a day on women's as well as children's work; meanwhile the Act of 1844 had introduced the first safety measures. (The scope of all these early Acts was limited to certain factories, mainly textile.) The first Workmen's Compensation Act, making the payment of compensation for accidents at work compulsory and an employer's liability, was passed in 1897.

The early Factory Acts had prescribed for employed children a certain minimum number of hours' education each week. Successive Acts increased this minimum until it was no longer necessary in view of the raising of the age limit below which employment was illegal and the introduction of compulsory education. The State began to take an active part in education in England and Wales in 1870, when the Elementary Education Act provided for the setting-up of schools in areas where the voluntary societies, which had been receiving State grants since 1833, had not already established them. By the end of the century when, in 1899, the Board of Education was created, elementary education had become compulsory, and available free of charge to every child.

Environmental health services were comparatively early recognised as matters for official action. The first true sanitary measure was the Public Health Act of 1848. In the personal health services, on the other hand, voluntary provision remained very important until the establishment of the

¹Chelsea Hospital for old soldiers, Greenwich Hospital for old sailors.

National Health Service after the second world war. Until then, voluntary hospitals under their own management existed side by side with municipal hospitals under the local authorities, both types making their own distinctive contributions to the welfare of the community as a whole.

In the sphere of housing, State intervention did not begin until 1852 when legislation was passed to permit local authorities to provide lodging-houses for working men and inspect existing ones. The power was permissive only and local authorities were slow to act. The first effective Housing Act authorising local authorities to provide housing at modest rents to supplement that produced by private enterprise was in 1890; it followed weaker measures under which some enterprising authorities had set the example, as in Birmingham's slum clearance drive in the 1870s–1880s which halved the death-rate in the area rebuilt.

A landmark in the treatment of offenders in the nineteenth century was the report, published in 1895, of a committee under Herbert, later Lord, Gladstone, which found that although administrative reforms had made prisons more efficiently run and conditions in them more healthy, the punitive regime there did not reform the prisoners but released them brutalised and embittered. The committee recommended that reformation and deterrence should in future be treated as 'primary and concurrent objects'. Its detailed suggestions, including greater differentiation between the needs of different ages and types of offender, and the initiation while offenders were still in prison of aid to their families and preparation for after-care, were embodied in the Prison Act of 1898.

From this time dates the formation of the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children and the growth of small homes for orphans maintained by voluntary bodies, in which connection Dr. Barnardo's is the most famous name. Conditions in these homes contrasted favourably with those in the large institutions in which the Poor Law authorities cared for orphans, generally unsegregated from other inmates.

An important feature of activity towards the end of the century in which the voluntary organisations led the way was the growth on the one hand of conscious recording and analysis of social conditions,¹ leading to sociological studies and political policies based on systematic observation of facts, and on the other of a more systematic approach to voluntary work for people in distress which fostered better administrative organisation of voluntary bodies and the emergence of social work professions² with specialised skills that can be acquired with training.

The Early Part of the Twentieth Century

Even before the first world war, the idea was emerging that social services should not be regarded as a form of charity, but rather as one of the natural benefits available to the citizens of a civilised state, ranking equally with defence, justice, law and order. From these years date the provision of employment exchanges (first opened in 1910) to help workers to find jobs; an old age pension scheme financed from central government funds, under

¹For example, Charles Booth's classic survey of London conditions in *Life and Labour of the People* was published in 1889.

²For example, the first almoner (now medical social worker) was appointed in 1895; she had been trained by the Charity Organisation Society.

the 1908 Act, free of the personal indignities of the Poor Law¹; and an insurance scheme under the National Insurance Act of 1911, providing money payments during sickness or unemployment as of right in return for contributions (limited though it was at first to a small proportion of the employed population). The foundations of the present probation service were laid by the Probation of Offenders Act 1907, which enabled payments to be made from public funds to the voluntary 'court missionaries', and the concept of juvenile courts for young offenders was introduced by the Children Act 1908, which required magistrates to arrange special sessions for the hearing of cases concerned with young people under 16 years.

Stimulated by the experiences of the first world war, which like all wars aggravated existing social problems and created new ones, the State increased its powers and pushed ahead with the development of services to promote health and welfare. During the 1920s and 1930s State support for the maternity and infant welfare services began to make itself felt, through services under the Maternity and Child Welfare Act 1918, which gave local authorities power to provide clinics and similar services. About this period day nurseries and nursery classes were being established for children under the statutory school age, so that children whose mothers were for one reason or another unable to look after them need not suffer from neglect; special schools were being set up for handicapped children, to enable them to make the best of their abilities; the school medical services were being expanded and the provision of free milk and meals in schools was growing so that children whose parents were unable to provide for them in these ways should not be deprived of the medical attention and nourishment necessary to their age. Finally efforts were being made to improve the State elementary and secondary schools, and to provide some sort of further education for young people obliged to leave school at an early age. The Education Act of 1918 raised the upper age of compulsory attendance at school to the end of the term in which the pupil reached his fourteenth birthday; and it charged the local education authorities with the duty of providing advanced instruction and practical training for older children in senior departments or central schools. Also in 1918 came official recognition of the need for youth work,² already pioneered by boys' and girls' clubs and other youth movements in the nineteenth century.

Nor was it only the younger generation which benefited from the post-war awareness of the need for the promotion of health and welfare services by the State. Between 1919 and 1939, the State, through the local authorities, assumed additional and specific responsibilities (either directly, or indirectly, by financial help to voluntary bodies) for the care of the blind, the disabled and the chronically unfit. Steps were taken to deal more effectively and humanely with socially significant diseases, such as mental disorder or deficiency, tuberculosis, and the venereal diseases. Advances made in curative services such as these were matched by developments in the preventive and general services. The whole question of working conditions in factories came under

¹The Royal Commission on the Poor Law which reported in 1909 severely criticised the Poor Law system and some of its members recommended its abolition.

²State-aided help to young people in starting employment had come earlier when the Education (Choice of Employment) Act 1910 gave local authorities powers to advise young people under 17 on choosing careers.

review, and in 1937 a Factory Act was passed to raise the health, safety and welfare standards. Miners' welfare services were inaugurated on a national scale, while some of the larger commercial companies began to extend their own welfare services and to create new ones; for example, the practice of appointing full-time or part-time doctors and nurses for supervisory duties in factories and workshops began to be much more widely adopted. Between 1919 and 1939, local authorities acquired new powers to provide or promote the provision of housing and a start was made with slum clearance and the alleviation and prevention of overcrowding. The scope and variety of provision for the destitute, outside the Poor Law, rapidly increased. By the outbreak of the second world war in 1939 the social insurance and allied services in Britain comprised: pensions based on need, for the old and the blind (if over 40); unemployment and health insurance and a contributory old-age, widows' and orphans' pension scheme for most manual workers and some non-manual workers; and payments, dependent on need but from central government funds, to the long unemployed. The war pensions code had been revised in the course of the first world war to provide pensions for the disabled (based on their physical or mental disablement, even if they retained their earning power), and for war widows and orphans, paid by a specially created government department.

None of these services was imposed by the State upon an unwilling public. All of them were the result of co-operative effort by the successive governments and the people whom they governed. As the new State services were set up, there was no attempt to destroy the spirit of voluntary service which had inspired many of them. Where voluntary organisations were doing good work, they were encouraged to continue, whether it was in school, hospital, or factory, or in the provision of houses. It became the function of the State to supplement the services and provide financial assistance, to see that they were brought within the reach of every citizen, to ensure that adequate standards were maintained, and to hold a balance so that the needs of everyone should, as far as possible, be met.

From the Second World War to the Present Time

The system of social services which had been achieved by 1939 was good by the standards of its time but it was not comprehensive and there were inadequacies. Like most British institutions, they had grown up at different speeds and with different patterns—the impetus came from some pressing need or some visionary idea rather than a set plan. Then, from 1939 to 1945, for the second time within 30 years the unsettled and peculiar conditions of a war-time existence focused attention upon the weaknesses and gaps in the existing system. The problems of evacuation showed, for instance, that there were considerable inequalities between some of the medical services provided in the towns and in the country, and that many country districts were still inadequately served. The call-up of young men into the Services showed that, in spite of progress since the first world war, there was still much to be desired in the standard of their physical fitness and of their intellectual attainments, and that the need to raise the school-leaving age and to provide further education as well as extra opportunities for physical training was an imperative one. The six years' standstill in house-building accompanied by the destructive effect of air bombardment swept away the good effects of the pre-

war campaign against the slums and overcrowding, and left behind it a shortage of housing accommodation unequalled after the first world war.

Before the second world war came to an end in 1945, plans were already being made for post-war reconstruction. A series of Acts, beginning in 1944, provided the framework for better and more comprehensive services on which the current provision still rests.

A new Education Act (1944) was passed, raising the school-leaving age to 15 (effective in 1947), with provision for a subsequent advance to 16 (this will become effective from the academic year 1970–71).

The Family Allowances Act 1945 (effective in 1946), the National Insurance Act 1946 (fully effective in 1948), and the National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act 1946 (effective in 1948), were all based on the proposals in the Beveridge Report,¹ published in the middle of the war, which recommended the entire re-shaping of social security provision on a new universal basis.

The provisions of the pre-war legislation on housing and slum clearance were revised by the Housing Act 1949 'to take account of the housing conditions and needs of all members of the community'. The National Health Service Act 1946 and the National Health Service (Scotland) Act 1947 (also effective in 1948) established the machinery for operating a comprehensive National Health Service available to all citizens whatever their means. The New Towns Act 1946, the Town and Country Planning Act 1947, and the Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act 1947, created the legal framework for rebuilding Britain in a rational and ordered way. The National Assistance Act 1948 removed the last traces of the old Poor Law by providing that anyone in need should be assisted out of central government funds under a national scheme of assistance, while the Children Act 1948 provided for better care and a more equal chance in life for the child who is deprived of a normal home life. These Acts also took effect in 1948.

The present system of treating offenders in Britain rests largely on the provisions of the Criminal Justice Act 1948 and the Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act 1949, which included provisions abolishing sentences of penal servitude, and hard labour,² and embodied the principle that for offenders who could not be dealt with outside prison, for example by probation, the aim of their treatment should be as far as possible reformation and restoration to normal life. In 1949 legislation was passed which widened and reorganised the existing arrangements for free legal assistance to people of limited means.

This series of measures, begun under the wartime coalition Government, was largely based on agreement between all the political parties about the better Britain they wanted to see after the war, and embodied ideas formulated by people of various shades of political opinion. In the planning of the revised and expanded services account was also taken of the findings of a growing volume of specialised social studies. Rowntree's *Poverty and Progress*, an analysis of the extent of poverty in York in 1936, is an example of an independent survey, and the overcrowding survey undertaken by local authorities in 1936 is an example of an official fact-finding enquiry.

¹*Social Insurance and Allied Services*, Cmd. 6404, HMSO, 1942.

²It also restricted the use of corporal punishment to cases of mutiny in prisons or gross personal violence inflicted on a prison officer in specified circumstances.

Since the broad pattern of the current social services was laid down in the 1940s they have not remained static. The Education Acts 1946 to 1964 clarified and extended certain parts of the 1944 Act. The rates of social security benefits have been several times increased; the National Insurance Act 1959 introduced a new scheme for graduated retirement pensions; the National Insurance Act 1966 provided for earnings-related supplements to sickness and unemployment benefits and widow's allowance; and a new system of non-contributory allowances is to come into operation in 1966 (see Appendix I). A scheme to provide some compensation for employees who lose their jobs through redundancy was established under the Redundancy Payments Act 1965. The legal basis of provision for the mentally disordered has been brought up to date by the Mental Health Act 1959 and the Mental Health (Scotland) Act 1960. The Housing Acts 1961 and 1964 provided increased government help for house-purchase and the improvement of older dwellings and the Rent Act 1965 provided security of tenure for tenants of rented accommodation and a system of rent regulation. Extensive building programmes have been launched to provide the new or improved accommodation needed for modern developments in the education, health and welfare services and for the increasingly varied and differentiated establishments for the treatment of different kinds of offenders against the law.

The study of social problems and social conditions and research into the causes and prevention of crime continues and helps to inform public opinion and assist planners. Bodies undertaking or commissioning social research include government departments, the Social Science Research Council, the Council for Training in Social Work, the National Institute for Social Work Training, the National Council of Social Service, the universities and independent trusts, such as the Nuffield Foundation, the National Institute of Economic and Social Research, the Acton Society Trust and Political and Economic Planning (PEP).

SOCIAL SECURITY¹

NATIONAL INSURANCE, Industrial Injuries Insurance, Family Allowances and National Assistance² together with (in a special category) War Pensions, constitute a comprehensive system of social security in the United Kingdom. The system, which has now been in operation for nearly 20 years, is under review by the Government to ensure that it meets present-day needs in the most effective way.

Administrative Authorities

The Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance administers the first three of these services in Great Britain; in Northern Ireland they are administered by the Ministry of Health and Social Services. National Assistance is administered by the National Assistance Board in Great Britain, and in Northern Ireland by the National Assistance Board for Northern Ireland.² Pensions and welfare services for war pensioners and their dependants are the responsibility of the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance throughout the United Kingdom.

Appeals relating to claims for insurance benefits, family allowances or war pensions, or to applications for assistance, are not decided by the Ministry or the Board but by independent authorities appointed under the Acts.

The total expenditure on social security, including those schemes to which insured persons and employers contribute, amounted to nearly £2,120 million in 1964-65.

FAMILY ALLOWANCES

Family allowances have been provided by the State since 1946, under the Family Allowances Acts in Great Britain, and by the Family Allowances (Northern Ireland) Acts in Northern Ireland. Nearly 6 million allowances are being paid in Great Britain to about $3\frac{3}{4}$ million families with two or more children and over a quarter of a million in Northern Ireland to over 118,000 families. An allowance is paid for each child other than the first child below the age limits. The age limits are 15 years for children who leave school at that age, 16 years for certain incapacitated children, and 19 for children who remain at school or are apprentices. The rate of the allowance is 8s. a week for the second child below the age limits and 10s. a week for the third and each subsequent child.

Family allowances are paid from the Exchequer and their object is to benefit the family as a whole; they belong to the mother, but may be paid either to the mother or to the father. There is no insurance qualification for title to the allowances, but there are certain residence conditions.

The corresponding scheme in Northern Ireland makes similar provision for family allowances.

¹For fuller information, see COI reference pamphlet RF.P. 5455 *Social Security in Britain*.

²The Government has published a Bill to merge the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance and the National Assistance Board into a Ministry of Social Security and replace National Assistance by a new system of non-contributory benefits (see Appendix I). In Northern Ireland it is proposed to absorb the National Assistance Board of Northern Ireland into the Ministry of Health and Social Services.

NATIONAL INSURANCE

The National Insurance Acts apply, in general, to everyone over school-leaving age living in Great Britain.¹ There are similar schemes in Northern Ireland and the Isle of Man.

The National Insurance scheme provides benefits in specified contingencies to insured persons who have paid the required contributions. The benefits are paid for partly by insured persons' contributions, partly by the contributions of employers in respect of their employees, and partly by a contribution made by the Exchequer out of general taxation. The rates of the flat-rate contributions and benefits are standard amounts varying only with the sex and insurance class of the insured person (with lower rates for those under 18). In April 1961 the scheme was modified by the introduction of the graduated pension scheme. This applies to all adult employed persons earning a minimum of £9 a week and not 'contracted out' of the graduated scheme and provides for them to earn additions to flat-rate retirement pension (but not to any other benefit) in return for graduated contributions, related to earnings between £9 and £18 a week, paid normally in addition to the flat-rate contributions. Employees whose job provides them with a secure occupational pension can be 'contracted out' of the scheme by their employers. About $4\frac{3}{4}$ million have been contracted out and over 39,000 in Northern Ireland.

The National Insurance Act 1966 provides for the introduction of earnings-related supplements to unemployment and sickness benefit payable to people over 18 and under minimum pension age who are entitled to flat-rate unemployment or sickness benefit. The supplements will be payable from the thirteenth day of unemployment or sickness and will last for up to a maximum of six months, periods of unemployment and sickness being aggregated. The Act also provides for a similar earnings-related supplement to the widow's allowance which is paid for the early months of widowhood: the period of that allowance is to be extended from 13 to 26 weeks.

In order to provide for the extra cost of earnings-related supplements the Act provides for payment of additional graduated contributions at the rate of one-half per cent a side on that part of the employee's earnings between £9 and £30 a week. There will be no contracting out of the new provisions and the one-half per cent graduated contribution will, therefore, be paid by those contracted out of the existing graduated pension scheme as well as by those who are not. The one-half per cent graduated contribution will count for graduated pension in all cases. These changes will start in the autumn of 1966.

Contributors under the National Insurance scheme are divided into three classes:

Class 1.—Employed persons: Those who work for an employer under a contract of service or are paid apprentices—nearly 23 million. This class falls into two groups: those who are, and those who are not, participating in the graduated pension part of the scheme.

Class 2.—Self-employed persons: Those in business on their own account and others who are working for gain but do not work under the control of an employer—nearly $1\frac{1}{2}$ million.

Class 3.—Non-employed persons: All persons insured who are not in Class 1 or 2—nearly a quarter of a million.

¹The National Insurance Act 1965 consolidated the National Insurance Acts 1946–64. The most recent is the National Insurance Act 1966.

This general classification is subject to certain modifications to meet special circumstances. Married women engaged only in their own household duties are, in general, provided for by their husbands' insurance and need not pay contributions. Employed married women may choose either to pay separate flat-rate contributions themselves or to rely on the cover provided by their husbands' flat-rate contributions, which make them eligible for maternity grant, retirement pension at lower rate, widow's benefit and death grant, but if their earnings are over £9 a week they must pay graduated pension contributions unless they are employed in a contracted-out employment. Under the National Insurance Act 1966 they will also have to pay graduated contributions for earnings-related sickness and unemployment benefit. Students receiving full-time education and unpaid apprentices need not pay flat-rate contributions. Self-employed and non-employed persons whose income is not more than £260 a year can apply to be exempted from liability to pay contributions.

An insured person ceases to be liable for both flat-rate and graduated contributions at the age of 70 for men, 65 for women, or when he retires, or is deemed to have retired, from regular employment after reaching minimum pension age (65 for men, 60 for women), whichever is the earlier. If such a person does any work as an employed person thereafter, he must pay an industrial injuries contribution; the employer still has to pay his full share of the contribution.

Contributions

Flat-rate contributions are paid by all three classes. The table on p. 13 shows the main weekly rates of these contributions (including the National Health Service and the employer's Redundancy Payments contribution, which for convenience are paid with it though the three schemes are separately administered¹). The table also shows the range of graduated pension contributions payable by employed persons (men) aged 18 or over (unless they have been 'contracted out') who earn more than £9 a week, at the rate of about $4\frac{1}{4}$ per cent of that part of their weekly pay between £9 and £18. The employer pays the same amount. Flat-rate contributions are normally paid by national insurance stamps bought from a post office. Graduated contributions are paid together with income tax under the Pay As You Earn (deduction at source) system.

Benefits²

The scheme provides payments to contributors in case of unemployment (if normally working for an employer), incapacity for work due to sickness (if normally working for an employer or self-employed), and the weeks before and after confinement (for women normally working for an employer or self-employed and paying national insurance contributions at the full rate). Retirement pensions are paid to people who have reached 65 (60 for women) and who, if under 70 (65 for women), have retired from regular work;

¹The Finance Bill 1966 provides for a selective employment tax, payable from 5th September 1966 by all employers, at the rate of 25s. for each man employee, 12s. 6d. for each woman and boy under 18 and 8s. for each girl under 18. This tax, also, will be collected through the national insurance contribution machinery.

²For proposed non-contributory additions to retirement pensions and other allowances see Appendix I.

WEEKLY NATIONAL INSURANCE, INCLUDING NATIONAL HEALTH SERVICE AND
REDUNDANCY PAYMENTS CONTRIBUTIONS*

	National Insurance flat rate†	Employers' Redundancy Contribution	Health Service	Graduated Contri- bution‡		Totals	
				from	to	from	to
<i>Class 1</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>
Employed persons in the graduated pension scheme:							
Paid by employee	10 11½	—	2 8½	1	7 8	13 9	21 4
Paid by employer	12 3½	5	7½	1	7 8	13 5	21 0
TOTALS	23 3	5	3 4	2	15 4	27 2	42 4
Employed persons contracted out:							
Paid by employee	13 4½	—	2 8½			16 1	—
Paid by employer	14 8½	5	7½			15 9	—
TOTALS	28 1	5	3 4			31 10	—
<i>Class 2</i>							
Self-employed persons	15 10	—	2 10			18 8	—
<i>Class 3</i>							
Non-employed persons	12 1	—	2 10			14 11	—

* The rates given are those for men. Contributions for women, and boys and girls under 18 years of age, are at various lower rates.

† Including, for Class 1, the industrial injuries insurance contribution of 9*d.* from employee and 10*d.* from employer.

‡ Contributions for earnings-related benefits under the National Insurance Act 1966 will increase the range of graduated contributions for employees in the graduated pension scheme and their employers to an upper level of 9*s.* 9*d.*, and will amount to between 1*d.* and 2*s.* 1*d.* for employees contracted out and their employers.

widows receive benefits in the first 13 weeks (the 1966 Act provides for the extension of this period to 26 weeks) after bereavement and subsequently while they have young children or if they have reached the age of 50 when widowed or when their children have grown up; and there are two kinds of allowance in respect of orphan children where a widow's pension is not

payable. The scheme also provides lump-sum cash grants for two expensive contingencies—the birth of a child, and a death (though not for the death of someone already over minimum pension age when the scheme started).

For most of the benefits there are two contribution conditions. First, before benefit can be paid at all, a minimum number of flat-rate contributions must actually have been paid since entry into insurance; secondly, the full rate of benefit cannot be paid unless a specified number of flat-rate contributions have been paid or ‘credited’ over a specified period. There are special rules to help a widow who does not become entitled to a widow’s pension at widowhood or when her children have grown up, to qualify for sickness or unemployment benefit in the period before she can have established or re-established herself in insurance through her own contributions; there are also provisions to help divorced women who were not paying contributions during their marriage.

Amounts

The basic amount of the majority of flat-rate benefits is £4 a week for men and women alike, which may be reduced if insufficient contributions have been paid, but is not affected by other unearned income or the previous level of earnings; earnings received while the benefit is in payment, however, may cause its reduction or withdrawal. Exceptions to the basic flat rate are the higher rate of £5 12s. 6d. a week payable to widows, during the first 13 weeks (the 1966 Act provides for the extension of this period to 26 weeks) after bereavement, the increased retirement pension payable to someone who has continued at work and paid contributions beyond minimum pension age, and the lower rate of £2 15s. a week unemployment or sickness benefit payable to a married woman who is not either separated from her husband and unsupported by him or else maintaining an invalid husband. The standard rate of retirement pension for a woman on her husband’s insurance is £2 10s. a week. Standard increases of flat-rate benefit are payable for dependants at the rate of £2 10s. for an adult (generally a wife), £1 2s. 6d. for the first or only child under the family allowances age limits, and 14s. 6d. over and above any family allowances payable, for other children. However, the amounts payable to widows for their children are appreciably larger: £2 for each child inclusive of any family allowance payable.

Graduated contributions add 6d. a week to retirement pension for each £7 10s. of graduated contributions paid by a man, with the matching £7 10s. paid by his employer, and for each £9 paid by a woman, with the matching £9 paid by her employer.

A guardian’s allowance of £2 a week is provided for an orphan child one of whose parents was insured under the National Insurance Acts. A general condition is that both parents are dead but special rules apply to the children of divorced parents, to adopted children, to illegitimate children, to children one of whose parents is missing at the time the other dies and to children one of whose parents is dead and the other serving a long period of imprisonment. The allowance is paid to the person in whose family the child is for the time being included. A child for whom a guardian’s allowance is being paid cannot count for the purposes of other national insurance benefits for children or for family allowances. For certain fatherless children there is a child’s special allowance of £2 a week inclusive of family allowance; this is payable to a

woman whose marriage has been dissolved or annulled and who has not remarried, if her former husband dies and she has a child to whose support he was contributing before he died.

The rates of grants are: £22 maternity grant payable for a confinement and a further £22 grant for each additional child born at the same confinement living 12 hours after its birth; and £25 death grant on the death of an adult (less for a child, or for an adult who was within 10 years of minimum pension age when the scheme started). The National Insurance Act 1966 provides for the payment of earnings-related supplement to flat-rate unemployment and sickness benefit. The supplement will be one-third of the claimant's average weekly earnings between £9 and £30 and will be paid in addition to the flat-rate unemployment and sickness benefit, including increases for dependants, subject to a maximum total benefit of 85 per cent of earnings.

Duration

In general, National Insurance payments are paid as long as the situation requiring them lasts. However, sickness benefit cannot be paid for more than a year if less than 156 contributions have been paid (possible in three years for a contributor continuously at work). Unemployment benefit is payable in the first instance for 30 weeks, after which it may be continued for up to 19 months in all, according to the person's record of contributions paid as against unemployment benefit drawn in recent years. The National Insurance Act 1966 provides for a standard period of a year for flat-rate unemployment benefit. The earnings-related supplement to unemployment and sickness benefit to be paid under the Act will start from the thirteenth day of unemployment or sickness and last up to a maximum of six months, periods of unemployment and sickness being aggregated. Maternity allowance normally begins 11 weeks before the expected week of confinement and continues for six weeks after the expected week or the week of actual confinement if this is later.

Similarly, widowed mother's allowance at the full rate ceases when the children reach family allowance age limits, though a mother can continue to receive £4 a week for herself while she has living with her a son or daughter above the age limits but under 19. The widow's pension payable to the childless widow, provided she is over 50 (and had been married at least three years when her husband died), and the similar pension normally paid to the widowed mother who has reached 50 when her widowed mother's allowance ends, continue until she has reached minimum pension age and retired, or at most until age 65. If she has satisfied the conditions she then becomes entitled to a retirement pension.

INDUSTRIAL INJURIES INSURANCE

The Industrial Injuries Insurance scheme, which, in 1948, replaced the Workmen's Compensation scheme (first introduced by the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1897), provides benefits for personal injuries caused by accidents arising out of, and in the course of, employment, and for prescribed diseases due to the nature of employment. It covers practically everyone in Class 1 of the National Insurance scheme and certain others. Like the National Insurance scheme, the Industrial Injuries scheme is

financed partly from contributions (see table on p. 13) and partly from taxation. The relevant Acts are the National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act 1965 (a consolidating Act) and the National Insurance Act 1966. Similar cover against industrial injuries and diseases in Northern Ireland is provided by Northern Ireland's legislation.

Benefits

Injury Benefit

Injury benefit for an adult is £6 15s. a week plus £2 10s. for an adult dependant and £1 2s. 6d. for the first or only child under the family allowances age limits and 14s. 6d. for each other eligible child, in addition to any family allowance payable. It is paid when the insured person is incapable of working as a result of an industrial accident or prescribed disease, and payment can continue for a maximum of 26 weeks beginning on the date of the accident or development of the disease.

Disablement Benefit

Disablement benefit may be paid (but not at the same time as injury benefit) when, as the result of industrial accident or prescribed disease, there is a loss of physical or mental faculty. The amount depends on the extent of the disablement as assessed by a medical board; it varies from £6 15s. for 100 per cent disablement to £1 7s. a week for 20 per cent disablement. For disablement of less than 20 per cent a gratuity is normally paid, ranging up to £450.

In certain circumstances disablement benefit may be supplemented as follows: unemployability supplement, at the weekly rate of £4; constant attendance allowance of up to £2 15s. weekly (normally), or at rates of £4 2s. 6d. or £5 10s. a week in exceptionally severe cases who may also be entitled to an exceptionally severe disablement allowance of £3 a week; a special hardship allowance of up to £2 14s. for a person who is unfit to return to his regular job or work of an equivalent standard; and hospital treatment allowances which raise the benefit to that for a 100 per cent assessment during hospital treatment for the industrial disability. Increases of benefit for dependants are payable with unemployability supplement and hospital treatment allowance.

Death Benefit

If the accident or disease results in the insured person's death, death benefit may be paid to the dependants.

For a widow a pension of £5 12s. 6d. a week is payable for the first 13 weeks of widowhood (under the 1966 Act to be extended to 26 weeks and augmented by any earnings-related supplement that would have been paid had she claimed widow's allowance under the main National Insurance scheme). Thereafter, the widow is entitled to a pension of £4 10s. a week if (1) entitled to a child's allowance or over the age of 40 on ceasing to be so entitled, or (2) over 50 years of age or permanently incapable of self-support at the time of her husband's death, or (3) not entitled to child's allowance, but has residing with her a young person under the age of 19 who was or could be treated as being in her late husband's family, or (4) over 40 years of age when (3) ceases to apply, or (5) pregnant by her late husband. If

none of these conditions is satisfied, the widow may receive a pension of £1 a week. If she had been living apart from her husband, the pension is limited to the weekly rate of maintenance he was paying, if less than the rate otherwise appropriate.

In addition, allowances are paid for children under the family allowance age limits. For widows, these allowances together with any family allowance payable amount to £2 a week for each child. For other beneficiaries, the rate is £1 2s. 6d. and 14s. 6d. a week respectively.

Certain other dependants, such as parents and other relatives, may be entitled to pension of up to £1 a week, allowances or gratuities.

WAR PENSIONS AND RELATED SERVICES

Pensions and allowances for persons disabled or bereaved through the wars or forces' service subsequent to the second world war are paid under Royal Warrants and other instruments administered by the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance.¹

The current basic pension for 100 per cent disablement for a private soldier is £6 15s. a week, but the amount varies according to rank and the degree of disablement. The latter is assessed by comparing the general condition of the person as disabled by service with that of a normal healthy person of the same age and sex. Allowances for a wife and children are paid in addition to the basic pension. There is a wide range of supplementary allowances, the main ones being for unemployability (£4 7s. 6d. a week), constant attendance (up to £2 15s. and, exceptionally, £5 10s. a week), exceptionally severe disablement (£3 a week), comforts (10s. or £1 a week), and lowered standard of occupation (up to £2 14s. a week). An age allowance (at rates varying between 5s. and 15s. a week) is payable to disablement pensioners who are aged 65 or over and whose assessment is 40 per cent or more.

Pensions are also paid to war widows and war orphans. The standard rate of pension for widows of private soldiers is £5 5s. a week, with additional allowances for their children (£2 4s. for each child), and, in certain cases, an allowance for rent (up to £2 a week). There is an additional allowance of 10s. a week for widows aged 70 or over. Parents or other relatives who were dependent on a person whose death resulted from military service may receive pensions if they are in financial need.

The Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance maintains a welfare service for war pensioners and orphans which is available to give advice and assistance. War pensioners have priority for treatment of their war disabilities in National Health Service hospitals subject only to the needs of emergency and other urgent cases.

Many voluntary associations and ex-Service organisations give financial aid and personal service to disabled ex-Service men and women and their families. The Ministry's welfare officers work in close co-operation with these voluntary bodies and with the specialist government welfare agencies.

NATIONAL ASSISTANCE¹

The National Assistance Act 1948 abolished the existing Poor Law in Great

¹For the Government's proposed changes see Appendix I.

Britain and, in place of the various services for the relief of need previously provided from both central and local government funds, established for the first time a comprehensive State service of financial assistance according to need which is administered by the National Assistance Board. The parallel legislation in Northern Ireland made similar provision.

Application to the board for financial assistance can be made, with certain exceptions relating to people in full-time work or involved in a trade dispute, by anyone over the age of 16 who is in need. The need for assistance is decided by reference to general standards (which are amended from time to time) laid down in regulations approved by Parliament.

The regulations make special provision for higher rates for the blind and certain tuberculous people, and also allow the board's officer to adjust the amount payable to suit the particular circumstances of every case.

The board is responsible for influencing 'persons without a settled way of living' to lead a more normal life, and provides temporary accommodation for them in reception centres, sometimes through the agency of local authorities. For men who have been unemployed for long periods and who are in receipt of national assistance grants or are using reception centres, it runs two non-residential and two residential re-establishment centres where they are given help to fit them again for work.

HEALTH AND WELFARE SERVICES¹

THE SERVICES described in this chapter are those concerned with environmental and personal health services and the health and welfare services of local authorities; measures to promote the health and welfare of employees at their place of work and of school children are described in the sections of this pamphlet on employment and education.

PUBLIC HEALTH

Administrative Authorities

The Public Health Act of 1936 brought up to date and consolidated preceding Acts; it constitutes the present basic public health code in England and Wales. Local authorities (under the general direction of the Ministry of Health or the Welsh Board of Health and the Ministry of Housing and Local Government) are mainly responsible for its implementation and they have extensive powers for the making and administration of by-laws on matters of public health. The local authorities chiefly concerned are the councils of county and non-county boroughs, London boroughs and the City of London, urban and rural district councils, and, to a limited extent, parish councils.

Public health services in Scotland and Northern Ireland have developed on much the same lines as in England and Wales, although they are based on separate Acts and there is a different allocation of services between the various types of local authority working under the direction of the Scottish Home and Health Department and the Northern Ireland Ministry of Health and Social Services. The Public Health (Scotland) Act 1897 and the Burgh Police (Scotland) Act 1892, as amended by later statutes, constitute the basic legislation for Scotland. The local authorities concerned are the councils of counties and burghs. In Northern Ireland the councils of county and non-county boroughs and urban and rural districts are mainly responsible for administering the Public Health Acts (Northern Ireland) 1878–1962.

Control of Infectious Diseases

Local authorities are responsible for the investigation by their Medical Officers of Health of outbreaks of infectious diseases and for disinfection and other measures advised by them for preventing the spread of infectious diseases in the area. They are also responsible to the Ministry of Health (or the Welsh Board of Health or the Secretary of State for Scotland or the Ministry of Health and Social Services for Northern Ireland) for recording notifications of the prescribed infectious diseases.

Pure Food

The purity, hygiene and description of food are controlled by legislation consolidated for England and Wales in the Food and Drugs Act 1955, for Scotland in the Food and Drugs (Scotland) Act 1956 and for Northern Ireland in the Food and Drugs Act (Northern Ireland) 1958. The Acts and regulations made under them are, in general, carried out by local authorities; the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, Scottish Home and Health Department, and the Ministry of Health and

¹For fuller information, see COI reference pamphlets RF.P. 5154 *Health Services in Britain* and RF.P. 5236 *Children in Britain*.

Social Services in Northern Ireland are the central departments responsible. Places where food for sale for human consumption is prepared, sold or stored are required to conform to certain hygienic standards. Authorised officers of the councils concerned may take for analysis or for bacteriological or other examination samples of any food for sale for human consumption. Special regulations are in force for certain foods such as milk, meat and ice-cream.

Other Public Health Duties

Local authorities are also responsible for the public health aspects of water supply, sewerage and drainage; street paving and housing; and the abatement of noise nuisance. They have power to establish smoke-controlled areas to secure cleaner air; they may arrange with statutory water undertakings for the addition of fluoride to combat dental decay.

THE NATIONAL HEALTH SERVICE

The Acts setting up the National Health Service—the National Health Service Act 1946, the National Health Service (Scotland) Act 1947 and the Health Services Act (Northern Ireland) 1948—came into force simultaneously in 1948.

The object of the National Health Service Act 1946 is ‘to promote the establishment in England and Wales of a comprehensive health service designed to secure improvement in the physical and mental health of the people of England and Wales and the prevention, diagnosis and treatment of illness, and for that purpose to provide or secure the effective provision of services’. The service was originally free to users but certain small charges were introduced under subsequent legislation. The Government has announced its intention of abolishing all charges. The service is available free of charge to all according to medical need without regard to any insurance qualification. National insurance contributors are required to pay a separate weekly national health contribution under the National Health Service Contribution Acts 1957 to 1961 (see table on p. 13). Visitors from other countries who come to Britain for treatment are expected to pay for it, but treatment can be given under the emergency provisions of the National Health Service to any who have the misfortune to fall ill during a visit to Britain.

Health Service Administration in Great Britain

The Service falls into three parts:

1. The hospital and specialist services for which the Minister of Health or Secretary of State for Scotland is directly responsible. These are administered through regional hospital boards and hospital management committees, or, in the case of teaching hospitals in England and Wales, boards of governors.
2. The general practitioner services, consisting of the family doctor service, the dental service, the eye service and the pharmaceutical service, for which the Health Ministers are indirectly responsible. They are administered by local executive councils on which doctors, dentists and pharmacists are represented.

3. The local authority services, consisting of maternity and child welfare services, services for the prevention of illness, care and after-care, health visiting, home nursing and domestic help, in England and Wales ambulance services and health centres,¹ for which the Health Ministers are indirectly responsible. They are administered by the major local authorities.

In addition, the Minister of Health in England and Wales has power to conduct, or assist others to conduct, research work and he provides a public health laboratory service and blood transfusion service. He is advised by the Central Health Services Council and by standing advisory committees on various aspects of the service.

Medical and dental schools are not under the control of the Minister; but it is his responsibility to provide clinical facilities for the training of medical students. The universities are responsible for the provision of teaching.

The Secretary of State has similar duties with regard to Scotland. The teaching hospitals in Scotland come under the control of the regional hospital boards, but special medical education committees consider matters relating to medical teaching. The Scottish Health Services Council and the standing advisory committees advise the Secretary of State and keep closely in touch with the Central Health Services Council on common issues.

The Northern Ireland Health Services are described separately on p. 28.

Health Service Finance

Estimated expenditure on the National Health and Welfare Services in Great Britain was £1,398 million (gross) in 1965–66 which amounts to over 4 per cent of the total national income. The greater part of the cost falls on the Exchequer, to be met from general taxation, and a small part is met from local rates. Other income is derived from the national health contribution paid with the national insurance contribution.

There are charges for treatment in the dental service (but not for examination only or for treatment given to people under 21 years or to nursing or expectant mothers), for dentures (except for children under 16 or still at school, and expectant and nursing mothers) and spectacles (except children's spectacles in standard frames), and for some local health authority services. Certain exemptions or refunds are made and anyone may apply to the National Assistance Board (but see Appendix I) for help in meeting any of these charges. A limited number of beds may be put aside for hospital patients wishing for privacy, provided that this accommodation is not needed on medical grounds for non-paying patients. Charges for these 'amenity' beds are fixed in accordance with statutory regulations. Provision is also made at certain hospitals for patients who wish to occupy private patients' accommodation on payment of the whole cost of this accommodation and treatment. Such patients may make private arrangements for treatment by doctors of their own choice.

Hospital medical staffs are either full-time and salaried, or part-time; part-time medical officers are usually paid on a sessional basis and are free

¹In Scotland the Secretary of State is directly responsible for ambulance services and health centres.

to accept private patients. General medical practitioners in public service are remunerated according to the nature and extent of the services they provide.

Dentists providing treatment in their own surgeries are paid on a prescribed scale of fees according to the treatment they have carried out. Pharmacists dispensing on their own premises are paid on the basis of the prescriptions they dispense. Doctors and ophthalmic opticians taking part in the supplementary ophthalmic service are paid prescribed fees for each sight test made; opticians who dispense spectacles are paid according to the number and type of pairs supplied.

The General Practitioner Services

The general practitioner services cover the medical attention given to individuals by doctors and dentists of their own choice, from among those enrolled in the service. About 23,000, or almost all, general medical practitioners (principals and assistants) in Great Britain take some part in the service, three-quarters of them in partnership.

Doctors wishing to enter practice have to apply through their executive councils to the central Medical Practices Committee, so that a better distribution of doctors throughout the country may be facilitated. The maximum number of patients' names permitted to be on a family doctor's list is normally 3,500; the average number in England and Wales is about 2,400. It is normally through the patient's own doctor that access to most other parts of the health service is obtained.

There are over 11,000 dentists in Great Britain in the general dental service.

Nearly 1,000 ophthalmic medical practitioners and about 8,000 ophthalmic and dispensing opticians in Great Britain are engaged in the supplementary ophthalmic service. This service provides for the testing of sight and provision of spectacles. Cases requiring treatment are dealt with through the hospital eye service.

Nearly all retail pharmacists (some 16,500 in Great Britain) take part in the service. They are responsible for the dispensing of all prescriptions except for the small number dispensed by certain general practitioners.

Hospital and Specialist Services

The hospital and specialist services provide hospital accommodation of all kinds, including district general hospitals with treatment and diagnostic facilities both for in-patients and out-patients, hospital maternity departments, infectious disease units, psychiatric units, geriatric units, convalescent homes, and rehabilitation centres; all forms of specialised treatment; and the services of specialists and other staff required for the hospitals.

There are about 3,000 hospitals in the National Health Service in Great Britain. Much has been done in recent years to improve and extend existing hospitals and new hospitals are being built. In 1962 plans for hospital development were published by the Government setting out the probable future pattern of the hospital services. These plans are reviewed from time to time and carried forward so that there will always be available an assessment of work likely to be started over the next ten years.

A small number of hospitals remain outside the service for special reasons. Most of these are run by religious orders. Some, such as the Italian and French hospitals, serve a special group of patients; others are maintained for

the chronic sick or for convalescents by charitable organisations. There are also private nursing homes, which must be registered.

Many hospitals have social work departments staffed by workers trained to apply the principles of social casework to the problems of the hospital patient—medical and psychiatric social workers co-operate with clinical and other staff in the patient's treatment by making social investigations as an aid to diagnosis, taking social action to alleviate problems and anxieties surrounding admission to hospital, and arranging when necessary after-care which will ensure that the patient is helped to readjust to life, whatever his continuing disability.

Experience has shown that efficient medical rehabilitation¹ reduces the stay in hospital, the incidence of permanent disability and the period of incapacity for full work. Specialised rehabilitation facilities are provided at the main hospitals and in a few special centres. They have been applied with advantage in the care of the chronic sick, the mentally disabled, the aged and the handicapped and have enabled many patients to become self-sufficient or to be discharged from hospital and to resume an independent life in their own homes. The work is carried out under the guidance of the appropriate medical specialist by physiotherapists, remedial gymnasts, occupational therapists and social workers, acting as a team. The departments work in close association with the Disablement Resettlement Service of the Ministry of Labour (see p. 77). Medical rehabilitation is available through the National Health Service and includes the provision, free of charge, of artificial limbs and eyes, hearing aids, surgical supports, invalid chairs, certain types of invalid vehicles and other appliances. Nursing aids for the handicapped at home, ranging from special carriages to feeding cups, can be borrowed through the Service.

The Public Health Laboratory Service provides a network of bacteriological and virological laboratories throughout England and Wales which conduct research and assist in the diagnosis, prevention and control of epidemic diseases. In Scotland and Northern Ireland, where there is no separate public health laboratory service, bacteriological work is done mainly in hospital laboratories.

The National Blood Transfusion Service is administered by the regional hospital boards in England and Wales, in Scotland by the Scottish National Blood Transfusion Association, an independent voluntary organisation, and in Northern Ireland by the Northern Ireland Hospitals Authority. The blood is given free by voluntary donors.

A Chest Radiological Service, which is freely available, is provided by mass radiography units, chest clinics and the radiological departments of general hospitals. The mass radiography units alone X-ray about 3½ million people each year, concentrating increasingly on specially susceptible groups in the population.

LOCAL AUTHORITY HEALTH AND WELFARE SERVICES

Local authorities play a major part in promoting the health and welfare of people in the community, often in co-operation with voluntary organisations

¹For a fuller account, see COI reference pamphlet RF.P. 4972 *Rehabilitation and Care of the Disabled in Britain*.

to which they may make grants, lend premises or give help in other ways.

Most of the needs for which the services are designed arise among four broad groups of people: mothers and young children, the elderly, the mentally disordered and the physically handicapped. Other smaller groups include the ill and convalescent at home, and the temporarily homeless. To ensure that the services bring the maximum benefit to those who use them, local authorities work in close co-operation with the general practitioner and hospital and specialist branches of the National Health Service.

The authorities responsible for health and welfare services are the councils of counties, county boroughs, London boroughs and the City of London, and, in Scotland, counties and large burghs. The development of the services in England and Wales over the decade 1964–74 was the subject of plans provided by the authorities and published in *Health and Welfare. The Development of Community Care*, HMSO, 1964. A revision of these plans for the ten years ending 1975–76 was published in 1966.¹ In 1966 a committee was appointed under the chairmanship of Mr. Frederick Seebohm to review the organisation and responsibilities of the local authority personal services in England and Wales. In Scotland fundamental studies of services are being carried out as a guide to authorities in their plans for development.

Charges may be made for some local authority health and welfare services (for example, domestic help, welfare foods for young or handicapped children and nursing and expectant mothers, day nurseries, the loan of equipment and laundering of bed linen for people being nursed at home, and chiropody services) but arrangements are made for free provision to people with very low incomes.

Services for Mothers and Young Children

Maternity and child welfare centres offer regular supervision by doctors and nurses to expectant and nursing mothers and young children. Special sessions are held for vaccination and inoculation and for early testing of babies for deafness and other defects, and a feature of the service is the instruction of mothers by means of talks, discussion groups, demonstrations and classes. About 77 per cent of babies born in England and Wales and 60 per cent of those born in Scotland in 1965 were taken to the centres. Health visitors also visit the homes of babies and young children to give advice on their care.

The expectant mother may arrange to have her baby at home or in hospital according to the advice given by the doctor or midwife, or according to her own preference if sufficient hospital beds are available over and above those required for priority cases, that is, those for whom domiciliary confinement is inadvisable for medical or obstetric reasons or because of adverse home conditions. For a home confinement the services of either a general practitioner obstetrician or her own family doctor, if he is willing to undertake her maternity care, besides those of a trained midwife and, if necessary, a consultant obstetrician, are now available to every mother.

Many local health authorities make special arrangements for premature babies remaining in their own homes, by lending equipment and appointing experienced nursing staff to supervise their care.

Domestic help (commonly called 'home help') is made available by local

¹*Health and Welfare. The Development of Community Care*. Cmnd. 3022. HMSO, £1 17s. 6d.

authorities during periods of special need, for example, confinement or during the absence of the mother when children might otherwise have to be cared for away from home. Some local authorities make direct provision for the needs of unmarried mothers and their babies, but most contribute to the cost of work done by voluntary organisations and other bodies.

Under the welfare foods service expectant and nursing mothers, children up to five years and one month and certain handicapped children can obtain a pint of milk a day at a reduced price. Other welfare foods distributed by local health authorities to the same group of people are dried milk, as an alternative to liquid milk and at an equivalent price, orange juice, cod liver oil and, for expectant and nursing mothers only, vitamin A and D tablets, at cost price. Families who cannot afford to pay can apply to the National Assistance Board (but see Appendix I) for special tokens to enable them to obtain supplies free of charge.

There are about 500 day nurseries for children under five in Great Britain provided by local health authorities or voluntary associations working with them. Local authorities may make charges for the use of day nurseries. Private or factory nurseries must be registered with the local health authority to ensure that their premises and management are satisfactory. People who mind more than two children under five in their homes for payment must also be registered if the children are not relatives and come from different households.

The Elderly

A number of services for elderly people in their homes are provided by statutory and voluntary bodies to help old people to live there for as long as possible, and a large proportion of the time both of home nurses and home helps is spent on the needs of the elderly. This is also true of the health visitors and social workers employed by local authorities and in most areas 'good neighbour' and friendly visiting services have also been arranged by the local authority or a voluntary organisation to assist the elderly. Many authorities arrange a chiropody service, sitters-in, night attendants and special laundry services. Under the National Assistance Amendment Act 1962 the authorities may provide day centres, clubs, recreational workshops and meals for old people.

In 1,600 areas local Old People's Welfare Committees have been formed and are aided by the National Old People's Welfare Council, an associated group of the National Council of Social Service widely representative of voluntary and statutory bodies having direct contact with old people; there are also the Scottish Old People's Welfare Committee, a Committee of the Scottish Council of Social Service and a corresponding committee in Northern Ireland. The National Corporation for the Care of Old People was established in 1947 by the Nuffield Foundation¹ to stimulate and to give financial support to schemes for the welfare of the aged, to maintain an

¹The Nuffield Foundation was established by Lord Nuffield in 1943 for the advancement of health and the prevention and relief of sickness; the advancement of social well-being; the care and comfort of the aged poor; the advancement of education; and such other charitable purposes as might be declared by Lord Nuffield in his lifetime and by the trustees after his death.

expert technical advisory service, and to encourage and undertake research and experiment for the welfare of old people. It is now concentrating its main effort on home services.

Local authorities provide residential accommodation, under the National Assistance Act, for the aged and infirm who may be in need of care and attention not otherwise available to them. The newer homes provided by local authorities for aged and other infirm people usually have accommodation for 30 to 50 residents, but it is recommended by the Government that homes for the elderly mentally infirm should not have more than 35 places. Nearly 1,530 new homes have been opened in Great Britain since 1945.

In addition to homes for elderly people provided by local authorities some 2,300 homes for the elderly or disabled are run by voluntary bodies, or privately, and are registered with local authorities under the National Assistance Act.

The Mentally Disordered

Treatment for mental disorder (including both mental illness and mental subnormality) is provided as part of the National Health Service. Patients can consult the family doctor and receive specialist advice at hospital outpatient clinics as they would for any other kind of illness, and if they need to enter a hospital for treatment, whether a general or a psychiatric hospital, they can do so without formalities.

Where necessary in the interests of society or of the patients themselves, mentally disordered patients can be compulsorily detained in hospital. Compulsory admission to hospital is regulated in England and Wales by the Mental Health Act 1959 and in Scotland by the Mental Health (Scotland) Act 1960. There are procedural safeguards to protect the patient from unnecessary detention and he may appeal against detention, in England and Wales to a Mental Health Review Tribunal, and in Scotland to the sheriff.

Local health authorities have a duty to make arrangements for helping the mentally disordered in the community, for their care and after-care. Recent developments in the treatment of mental illness which enable patients to be discharged from hospital more quickly, provided support is available in the community, are adding to the demands for these services. Arrangements may include facilities for training or occupation, and residential accommodation for the mentally disordered of all ages. If necessary the local health authority can place a mentally disordered person under guardianship within the community. In Scotland education authorities share the responsibility for providing training or occupation.

The Physically Handicapped

Under the National Assistance Act, the major local authorities have a duty to provide welfare services for people who are blind, partially-sighted, deaf, hard-of-hearing, or otherwise substantially and permanently handicapped. Voluntary organisations give important help in providing these services, sometimes acting as agents of the local authority. To become eligible for the services a person must apply to the welfare department of the local authority for registration as a handicapped person. Registration is voluntary, but local authorities have a duty to maintain registers which also serve as an indication of local needs.

A wide range of facilities is available under authorities' welfare schemes, including advice on occupational, social and personal problems arising from disability; assistance in overcoming the effects of disability; help in carrying out adaptations in the home—for example, by fitting ramps, wide doorways, ground floor toilets, guide rails, and the provision of various aids to living to meet individual needs; social and occupational centres and clubs; teaching of handicrafts and other occupations, either at home or in centres; and the provision of recreational facilities, outings and holidays. The blind welfare services are staffed by social workers, known as Home Teachers of the Blind, who are specially qualified to assist the blind in all matters including teaching them to read embossed literature. Services for the deaf are also staffed by specialist welfare officers qualified to communicate with the deaf.

For welfare clinics, which keep a watch for abnormalities, the school health service, and the provision of special educational treatment for handicapped children, see pp. 24, 35 and 37.

Health Centres

Twenty-four health centres which provide primarily for the association of general medical practice with maternity and child welfare services and the school health service have been set up by local health authorities in England and Wales. This is one form of co-operation between the different elements in the health service. The provision of the four health centres in Scotland is the responsibility of the Secretary of State for Scotland and not of local health authorities.

Health Education

The Government decided in February 1966 to set up a new Health Education Council (for England and Wales) which will absorb the present Central Council for Health Education. The new council will give national support for health education to the efforts of local agencies. Until it is established the present council will continue to provide a central advisory service for local authorities, and government departments will continue to help with publicity material such as films and posters.

Health education is primarily the responsibility of local authorities and they are increasingly employing specified officers to organise and promote health education, much of which is carried out in child welfare clinics and by health visitors. In Scotland central services are provided by the Scottish Council for Health Education and the Scottish Home and Health Department.

Ambulance Services

Free conveyance by ambulance in England and Wales between home and hospital or clinic is provided, where needed, by local authorities either directly or by arrangement with voluntary organisations. The Hospital Car Service (organised by the St. John Ambulance Brigade, the British Red Cross Society, and the Women's Voluntary Service) augments the ambulance service in many areas for the conveyance of sitting patients. In Scotland ambulances are run by the Scottish Ambulance Service (St. Andrew's Ambulance Association and the Scottish branch of the British Red Cross Society) on behalf of the Secretary of State. In Northern Ireland they are run by the Northern Ireland Hospitals Authority.

HEALTH AND WELFARE SERVICES IN NORTHERN IRELAND

The health services established under the Health Services Act (Northern Ireland) 1948 correspond fairly closely to the medical care system established under the National Health Service in Great Britain and they are financed in the same way as in the rest of the United Kingdom. Welfare services are provided under the Welfare Services Acts (Northern Ireland) 1949–61.

The hospital and specialist services are administered by the Northern Ireland Hospitals Authority (which corresponds approximately to a regional hospital board in Great Britain) through hospital management committees. In hospital administration the role of the central Government is not quite so immediate and direct as in Great Britain.¹ Hospital property, for example, is vested not in the Minister of Health and Social Services but in the Northern Ireland Hospitals Authority, which has under its control 75 hospitals containing in all about 17,000 beds. The administration of the general medical, dental, pharmaceutical and supplementary eye services is in the hands of the Northern Ireland Health Services Board, which takes the place of the executive councils in Great Britain. Local health and welfare services are administered by the six county councils and the two county borough councils in Northern Ireland under the direction of the Minister of Health and Social Services. The range of local authority services and the arrangements made by the Northern Ireland General Health Services Board for the provision of services and for the remuneration of the people providing them, are similar to those already described for the rest of the United Kingdom.

MEDICAL RESEARCH²

Medical research in Britain receiving support from government funds is carried out by the Medical Research Council (see below), the universities and their associated medical schools, and also in hospitals in the National Health Service.

A considerable amount of medical research is undertaken by the pharmaceutical industry. Private organisations, of which the British Empire Cancer Campaign and the Nuffield Foundation are probably among the largest, also make a valuable contribution; there is close co-operation between the Medical Research Council and these organisations to ensure the best allocation of their respective resources.

Medical Research Council

The Medical Research Council supports work both in its own establishments—the National Institute for Medical Research and some 79 research units—and by means of research grants for projects in university and other centres. The programme includes fundamental studies of the structure and natural processes of the body; clinical and laboratory studies of disease; the development and evaluation of special methods of treatment and also of

¹Legislation is under consideration which would bring the position in Northern Ireland more closely into line with Great Britain.

²For fuller information, see COI reference paper R.5578 *Medical Research in Britain*.

prophylaxis and diagnosis; and the study of social and occupational factors affecting health and the efficiency of body and mind.

The council is assisted by three advisory boards which cover its main fields of work—the Clinical Research Board, the Biological Research Board and the Tropical Medicine Research Board—and by a number of scientific committees concerned with specific research problems.

FAMILY WELFARE

Family casework was first provided by voluntary agencies such as, in London, the Family Welfare Association. The majority of family caseworkers are still to be found in voluntary agencies, but an increasing number of local authorities are employing them in their health, children's or welfare departments. In most cases, financial or material relief can solve only part of the problem and much time and care is spent on the solution of personal difficulties. Local authorities may make grants to local agencies to help in their work.

There are over 120 marriage guidance councils in Britain, co-ordinated in England, Wales and Northern Ireland by the National Marriage Guidance Council, and in Scotland by the Scottish Marriage Guidance Council. The Catholic Marriage Advisory Council has over 60 local centres in England and Wales. Through these various bodies free advice is given by voluntary counsellors to couples who are meeting problems in their married life and to young people approaching marriage. Panels of experts (including ministers of religion, doctors and lawyers) act as consultants. The central Government makes grants for marriage guidance work to the headquarters of the national bodies, and local authorities may make grants to local marriage guidance councils.

Local authorities have powers which can be used to help families with difficulties of various kinds and are rapidly expanding their social casework services through Family Advice Centres or local offices. Under the National Assistance Act 1948, they have a duty to provide temporary accommodation for families who are rendered homeless by unforeseen circumstances. In co-operation with housing departments they seek to prevent eviction, and to rehabilitate such families requiring intensive help to re-establish themselves in the community.

Under the National Health Service Act 1946, Health Departments have powers to assist with various kinds of family difficulties, to identify and prevent child neglect and to avert risk of break-up of family life through illness, instability or other causes. They have used this power to enable overburdened mothers and their younger children to go to recuperative centres provided by voluntary bodies, and to support the work of Family Service Units. Some have specific schemes for deploying the home help service to assist in family difficulties, or have appointed family caseworkers for the same purpose.

Health Departments also have responsibilities for ensuring that the needs of unmarried mothers are met, either by contributing financially to the work in this field undertaken by voluntary, denominational or other bodies, or by making direct provision for their special needs and employing staff for this purpose.

CHILD CARE

Local authorities' functions under the Children Act 1948 are exercised under the general guidance of the Secretaries of State; separate Advisory Councils on Child Care exist for the purpose of advising the Home Secretary and the Secretary of State for Scotland on matters connected with the discharge of their functions under the Act. Each local authority (county, county borough and London borough council or, in Scotland, council of a large burgh) is required to appoint a children's committee and a children's officer to be responsible for the care and upbringing of children in the authority's care. Children's officers are assisted by a staff of child care officers who undertake enquiries and who supervise children placed in foster homes. Regulations for England and Wales safeguarding the boarding out of children by local authorities and voluntary organisations and the conduct of children's homes have been made by the Home Secretary, and, for Scotland, by the Secretary of State for Scotland. The cost of the local authorities' child care service, including the provision of training for residential child care staff and child care officers, is shared between the local authorities and the Exchequer.

In Northern Ireland the Children and Young Persons Act (Northern Ireland) 1950 gave to the welfare authorities of each county and county borough (under the general direction of the Ministry of Home Affairs) the duty of caring for homeless and neglected children. Legislation relating to children and arrangements for their care follow the same general principles as in Great Britain.

Local authorities in Great Britain have a duty under the Children and Young Persons Act 1963 to make available such advice, guidance and assistance as may promote the welfare of children by diminishing the need to receive or keep them in the authority's care or to bring them before a juvenile court. This help may include assistance in kind or, exceptionally, financial help, and may be given through a voluntary organisation or directly. However, under the Children and Young Persons Act 1933, if a child seems to be in need of care, protection or control because of adverse circumstances in which it is not receiving the standard of care to be expected from a good parent or because it is beyond the control of parent or guardian, the local authority and the old-established National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children and its Scottish counterpart may initiate court proceedings and the child may be committed by the juvenile court to the care of a 'fit person', usually the local authority, till he or she reaches the age of 18, subject to reconsideration by a court on the application of any person. Local authorities have a further duty, under the Children Act 1948, to receive into their care any child under 17 who has no parent or guardian, or who has been abandoned or whose parents are unable to provide for him temporarily or permanently. A child so received remains in the care of the local authority until he is 18 years old unless the authority finds it to his advantage to return him sooner to his parents or guardian or to entrust him to friends, or unless a parent requests his return. Both categories of children are to be treated so as to further their best interests and afford them opportunity for the proper development of their character and interests.

When practicable, children in care are boarded out with foster parents,

who receive an allowance to cover the cost of maintenance. If a foster home cannot be found for a child, or he is not suitable for boarding out, he may be placed in a children's home provided by a local authority or a voluntary organisation. Many children's homes are now provided in small houses, on housing estates or in ordinary streets, where a group of 12 or fewer children live in the care of a housemother or houseparents, the husband following his normal employment. Other children may be placed in hostels or lodgings or in other accommodation specially suited to their needs. The desirability of returning a child to his family circle as soon as possible is fully appreciated, and work is carried out to rehabilitate the family where this is necessary.

Voluntary organisations, many of which were pioneers in child care, continue to play a valuable part in this work. The larger societies, such as Dr. Barnardo's, the National Children's Home, the Church of England Children's Society and the Catholic Child Welfare Council, are constituent societies of the National Council of Voluntary Child Care Organisations to which a large number of smaller voluntary homes are affiliated regionally. In Scotland a valuable contribution is also made by the Church of Scotland Committee on Social Service and by other voluntary organisations which run homes and hostels for children and young people. Children's homes provided by voluntary organisations (of which there are about 650 in Britain) are required to be registered under the Children Act (in Northern Ireland under the Children and Young Persons Act). The boarding out of children and all children's homes, whether local authority or voluntary homes, are subject to inspection by the inspectorate of the Children's Department of the Home Office, of the Scottish Office, or of the Northern Ireland Ministry of Home Affairs.

ADOPTION

Provision for legal adoption was first made in England and Wales in 1926, in Northern Ireland in 1929 and in Scotland in 1930. Over 20,000 adoption orders are made annually by the courts in Great Britain and some 400 in Northern Ireland; there are normally more would-be adopters than children for adoption. Adoption is now regulated by the Adoption Act 1958 in Great Britain and by the Adoption of Children Act (Northern Ireland) 1950 in Northern Ireland. The Registrars-General keep registers of adopted children; adoption societies (there are over 80 societies which arrange adoptions) must be registered with the local authority (in Northern Ireland with the Ministry of Home Affairs). Local authorities, through their children's committees, have had the power, since 1959, to act as adoption agencies, and increasingly do so.

EDUCATION¹

THERE ARE over 9 million children and young people in full-time attendance at schools, universities, colleges of education or technical colleges in Britain. The great majority of schools, attended by over 90 per cent of school children, are publicly provided or assisted. Most technical colleges and other centres of further education are also publicly maintained. Universities are autonomous self-governing institutions but are aided from public funds, as are nearly 95 per cent of their students.

The bulk of expenditure on education in Britain comes from public funds although many of the older-established schools and colleges continue to benefit from private endowments. In 1964–65 estimated total public expenditure on education, including university education (but excluding school meals and milk), was £1,450 million.

The Education Act of 1944 governs public education in England and Wales. The Scottish and Northern Ireland educational systems both have long histories independent of that of education in England, but the same general policy is now being implemented throughout the United Kingdom, with some national variations. The governing acts are the Education (Scotland) Act 1962 (a consolidating measure) and the Education Act (Northern Ireland) 1947.

Educational Administration

All aspects of education in England and Wales, and of universities, civil science, sport and the arts throughout Great Britain are the responsibility of the Secretary of State for Education and Science. (The Secretary of State for Wales is concerned with the supervision of the national educational policy in Wales.) The Secretary of State for Scotland and the Minister of Education for Northern Ireland have corresponding educational responsibilities, except that the Secretary of State for Scotland is consulted about Scottish universities but is not responsible for them.

Administration of publicly provided schools and further education is divided between the central government departments, local education authorities, and various voluntary organisations. The relation between these three groups is based on consultation and co-operation, both by direct contact between the parties and through Her Majesty's Inspectors of Education who act as liaison officers, particularly between local education authorities and the departments.

The local education authorities are responsible for ensuring that adequate provision is made in their areas for the two stages of school education (primary and secondary), and that those pupils who would profit by proceeding to a university are not deterred by lack of financial means. They are also responsible for the provision of all forms of further education (see p. 39).

The planning of the curriculum is largely in the hands of the head teacher of each school and the individual teachers (see p. 34). The Schools Council for the Curriculum and Examinations, representative of all educational interests, was set up in 1964 to advise on curricula, teaching methods and examinations in primary and secondary schools.

In England and Wales colleges of education (for teacher training) are under the financial and administrative control of local education authorities

¹For fuller information see COI reference pamphlet RF.P. 4751 *Education in Britain*.

or voluntary organisations, but the organisation of courses is based on university institutes of education. The Scottish colleges of education are under the control of specially appointed governing bodies; in Northern Ireland they are under the control of the Government or voluntary agencies.

The universities are administratively independent of the Department of Education and Science (and in Northern Ireland the Ministry of Education); their relations with the departments concerned are conducted through the University Grants Committee (see p. 44). Their governing bodies are appointed according to the terms of their individual charters.

SCHOOLS

Parents in Britain are required by law to see that their children receive efficient full-time education, at school or elsewhere, between the ages of 5 and 15. (The school-leaving age is to be raised to 16 in 1970–71.)

At present there are over $8\frac{3}{4}$ million school children at about 40,000 schools. In England and Wales there were over 7 million children in publicly maintained schools in 1965, besides some 125,000 others at schools receiving direct grants from the Department of Education; there were also about 458,000 children of all ages at about 3,560 independent schools. In Scotland 896,600 children were attending publicly maintained or assisted schools and over 18,000 were at independent schools. In Northern Ireland 300,000 children were attending publicly maintained or assisted schools and just over 1,000 were at independent schools.

The number of school children in Britain is increasing mainly because the birth rate continued to rise steadily after 1955, so that primary school numbers are very high. Each year, too, more children stay on at school beyond the minimum leaving age and raising the school-leaving age will probably increase the school population by 425,000. The school population is expected to rise, altogether, by 2 million by 1975. There is, therefore, a continuing need for more teachers and more school buildings.

In England, Wales and Northern Ireland it is usual for boys and girls to be taught together in primary schools. In England and Wales over half and in Northern Ireland less than half the secondary schools are for boys or girls only. Mixed schools are more common in Wales and in Scotland, where all but a few city schools take both boys and girls. There are a few co-educational independent schools, including those with classes for small children, but the majority of those providing secondary education are for either boys or girls.

Management

Schools supported from public funds are of three kinds in England and Wales: *county schools* (the largest group) which are provided and maintained by local education authorities wholly out of public funds; *voluntary schools* (mostly 'aided' or 'controlled' schools) which have been provided by a voluntary body, usually of a religious denomination,¹ and *direct-grant schools*

¹The local education authority is responsible for the running costs of all voluntary schools and for the cost of all building work at controlled schools. Aided schools have more independence than controlled schools and are responsible for part of the cost of external repairs and any building work (see p. 39). Over a third of the 30,000 schools maintained by local education authorities in England and Wales are voluntary schools and the majority of these are Church of England schools. There are 2,000 Roman Catholic voluntary schools and smaller numbers belonging to other religious bodies.

which are completely independent of local education authorities but receive a grant-in-aid from the Department of Education and Science. These last (the smallest group) mostly provide education of the grammar school type; they include some schools of ancient foundation. In Scotland most of the schools supported from public funds are provided by education authorities and are known as *public schools* (in England this term is used for a type of independent school, see p. 38). There are also a few *grant-aided schools* comparable to the English direct-grant schools. In Northern Ireland county schools, managed by local education authorities, and voluntary schools, under voluntary management, are both grant-aided by the Government.

Fees

In England and Wales no fees are charged to parents of children attending schools maintained by local education authorities (that is, over 90 per cent of the school population) and books and equipment are supplied free. Direct-grant schools charge fees, but must offer 25 per cent of their places free to pupils who have attended maintained or grant-aided primary schools for at least two years; these places are usually offered through, and paid for by, local education authorities. The direct-grant schools must also put a further 25 per cent of their places at the disposal of local education authorities, if required, for candidates who have not necessarily attended grant-aided primary schools. Tuition fees for the remaining places are payable, but relief may be claimed in accordance with an income scale approved by the Department of Education and Science; the Department pays the governors of the school the amount of the fees so remitted. (For independent schools, see p. 37.) In Scotland education authorities may charge fees in a limited number of schools provided that this does not prejudice the provision of free education for all who are entitled to it. In Northern Ireland no fees are charged to parents of children attending grant-aided schools, with the exception of grammar schools, where qualified pupils receive from the local education authorities scholarships which cover the whole or most of the fees charged by the school.

Curricula

In England and Wales there is no organisation of curricula or direction of teaching methods by either the Department of Education and Science or the local education authorities who are responsible for ensuring that there are sufficient schools available for their area. However, teachers are advised by Her Majesty's Inspectors, who are responsible for the inspection of all schools including independent schools; they review and report on the content and value of the education provided and are available as advisers. Local education authorities also employ inspectors to advise on the schools which they maintain. Further advice and encouragement for school-based research and development is becoming available to teachers through the Schools Council. In Scotland the subjects to be included in the curriculum are specified and the broad outline of schemes of work in primary and secondary schools is subject to the approval of one of Her Majesty's Inspectors. In Northern Ireland the curriculum of each grant-aided school is subject to the approval of the Ministry of Education. In both countries

considerable latitude is afforded in the scope both of the curriculum and the teaching methods employed.

Religion in Schools

In England and Wales by law all children in county or voluntary schools receive religious instruction and take part in a daily corporate act of worship unless their parents wish them to be withdrawn. In county schools, and in certain circumstances in voluntary schools, religious instruction of an undenominational Christian character is given. In all kinds of voluntary school there is opportunity for denominational instruction. In Scotland, subject to safeguards for the individual conscience, matters relating to religious instruction are in the hands of the education authorities; in the more populated areas there are separate schools for Roman Catholics. In county schools in Northern Ireland clergy have a right of access to give religious instruction to children of their denomination for a limited period each week.

At many of the independent schools services in the school chapel and religious teaching, mainly Anglican, are an important part of school life.

Health and Welfare of School Children

Physical education, including organised games, is a part of the curriculum of all schools. Those receiving financial assistance from public funds must have the use of a playing field and most secondary schools have a gymnasium. Organised games include tennis, cricket, football, hockey, lacrosse and netball.

The School Health Service provides periodic medical inspection and arranges, in co-operation with the National Health Service, for free medical and dental treatment for all children attending schools maintained by local education authorities. Treatment facilities include dental clinics and child guidance centres. In Northern Ireland the School Health Service is operated by the health authorities.

Milk (normally one-third of a pint a day) is given free to all school children who wish to have it, and the School Meals Service provide a midday dinner at a subsidised price (remitted where there is need) to over 65 per cent of the pupils in county and voluntary schools. Education authorities have power to provide free transport for children who live more than a certain distance from the schools they attend.

Primary Schools

Nursery schools provide informal educational and play facilities for a small proportion of children between two and five years old but many more are needed to meet the demand. At five, the age at which education becomes compulsory, children in England and Wales go to *infant schools* or departments until they are seven and then on to *junior schools* or departments until the age of about 11 (also in Northern Ireland; 12 in Scotland where primary schools are not divided into infant and junior schools).

The controversial subject of the age of transfer from primary to secondary schooling is included in the terms of reference of the Central Advisory Council for Education (England) which, under the chairmanship of Lady Plowden, is considering primary education in all its aspects; the Council's report is expected in 1966. In the meantime, under the Education Act 1964,

local education authorities and voluntary bodies in England and Wales may, subject to the approval of the Secretary of State for Education and Science, organise new schools so that the age of transfer is not necessarily at 11.

In Scotland, the scope of the curriculum is outlined in the Schools (Scotland) Code, but it is for each head teacher and his staff to determine precisely what is to be included and what part it is to play in their pupils' educational development. In England, Wales and Northern Ireland there are no compulsory secular subjects but generally a curriculum includes the teaching of reading, writing, arithmetic, English, music, art and handwork, nature study, history and geography. Additionally, in Wales, the Welsh language is taught. (Children who speak Welsh at home normally receive the early stages of their primary education in Welsh and are taught English as a second language.) Many interesting developments are taking place in the teaching of mathematics, science and foreign languages as well as in physical education, drama and art.

Secondary Schools

The public or state system of education aims to give all children an education suited to their particular abilities. A change in the means by which this should be achieved in England and Wales was announced by the Government in 1964, when it was stated that, as a matter of national policy, all secondary education should be reorganised on a comprehensive basis.

England and Wales

Comprehensive schools are not selective and provide a wide range of secondary education for all or most of the children of a district. They can be organised in a number of ways and the Government gave guidance on acceptable forms in a circular issued in July 1965. They include the comprehensive school that takes the full secondary school age range from 11 to 18; the 'two-tier' system in which all pupils transfer at 11 to junior comprehensive schools and at 13 or 14 to senior comprehensive schools; and the comprehensive school with an age range of 11 to 16 combined with a sixth-form college for pupils over 16.

The comprehensive system is replacing the 'separatist' system, which consists of the following types of secondary school to which children are allocated after selection procedures at the age of 11 (hence the term 'eleven-plus'): *grammar schools* which provide an academic education orientated towards university entrance (these include a small number of direct-grant grammar schools); *secondary modern schools* which were originally designed to give a general education with a practical bias; a few *secondary technical schools* offering a general education related to industry, commerce and agriculture; and schools providing all three, or any two types of education, in separately organised streams and known as *multilateral* or *bilateral schools*.

Scotland

Until recently, Scottish secondary schools fell mainly into one of three categories or were a combination of all three: (1) junior secondary schools

providing courses, normally lasting three years, for pupils likely to leave school at the statutory leaving age (15, rising to 16 in 1970–71); (2) schools which, in addition to junior secondary courses, provide courses leading to the Ordinary grade of the Scottish Certificate of Education; and (3) senior secondary schools which provide Certificate courses of four, five or six years. As in England and Wales secondary education is now being reorganised on comprehensive lines although, as indicated, many schools already provide all types of courses.

Under the present system the responsibility for supervising the allocation of pupils to the secondary courses best suited to them rests with a Transfer Board consisting of representatives of the education authority and of teachers and working in accordance with a scheme approved by the Secretary of State for Scotland. A parent who is dissatisfied with the Transfer Board's decision may appeal to the Secretary of State for Scotland.

Northern Ireland

In Northern Ireland there are *grammar schools*, *secondary (intermediate) schools*, which are the equivalent of the secondary modern schools in England and Wales, and *technical (intermediate) schools*, which offer the same facilities as secondary technical schools in England and Wales. Some changes in organisation are likely as the result of the 1964 White Paper, *Educational Development in Northern Ireland*.

Special Educational Treatment

Special educational treatment is provided for children who require it because of any physical or mental handicap, including maladjustment, either in ordinary schools or special (including hospital) schools. For children at special schools attendance is compulsory up to the age of 16, and a number of schools retain children beyond this age. There are about 1,000 special schools in Britain, including hospital schools, day and boarding schools. There are also boarding homes for handicapped children attending ordinary schools.

There are ten categories of handicapped pupils in England, Wales and Northern Ireland and nine in Scotland for whom local education authorities must provide special educational treatment: blind, partially sighted, deaf, partially hearing, delicate, educationally subnormal, epileptic, maladjusted, physically handicapped and children suffering from speech defects. There is no separate category for the delicate in Scotland.

Independent Schools

Independent schools receive no grants from public funds but all are open to inspection and must register with the Department of Education and Science, which has power to require them to remedy any objectionable features in their premises, accommodation or instruction and to exclude any person regarded as unsuitable to teach in or to be the proprietor of a school. In default, the department can, in effect, close a school but schools have a right of appeal to an Independent Schools Tribunal against any of the department's requirements.

Schools in England and Wales whose standards are regarded by the department as broadly comparable with those required of the grant-aided schools

are, on application, granted the status of 'recognised as efficient'. Such schools (some 1,540 of the 3,560 registered) contain about two-thirds of the pupils in independent schools. There is no 'recognised as efficient' status in Scotland.

Independent schools cater for pupils of all ages and abilities; a high proportion, particularly among the recognised efficient schools, provide a boarding education. These include the preparatory schools and the public schools.¹ The preparatory schools cater mainly for boys from about 8 to 13 years of age who intend to enter public schools. The largest and most important of the independent schools are the public schools, although the term includes some, mostly direct-grant schools, which are not independent schools.

There are just under 300 public schools about half of which are for girls. The boys' schools in particular include a high proportion of boarding schools and it is among these that the most famous schools are numbered. Fees generally range between £350 and £600 a year.

In 1965 the Government set up a Public Schools Commission to advise on the best way of integrating public schools with the state system of education.

School-leaving and Secondary School Examinations

The minimum school-leaving age for all children except those at special schools is, at present, 15; it will be raised to 16 in 1970-71. Most grammar school pupils remain at school until they are 16 and the rest leave between the ages of 17 and 19. The number of pupils in all schools staying on beyond the minimum leaving age has been steadily increasing, as has the number of pupils who stay until the end of the secondary school courses and go on for further education.

There is no national leaving examination in England or Wales, but secondary school pupils (and candidates not attending school) may take the General Certificate of Education (GCE) or the Certificate of Secondary Education (CSE). The GCE, which is on a single subject and not a grouped subject basis (that is, no subject is obligatory and individual subjects may be taken at different times), is conducted at 'Ordinary' (O) and 'Advanced' (A) levels. Most candidates for the O-level are about 16 years of age, although some take it earlier, at the discretion of their head teacher. Most grammar, direct-grant and independent school pupils and an increasing number from other secondary schools take the ordinary examination, and passes in various subjects are widely accepted for entry to courses of vocational training. The advanced examination is at university entrance level (supplemented by special papers to help university authorities in selecting students) and is accepted also for purposes of entry to many forms of professional training. The CSE, instituted in 1965, is designed for pupils who have completed five years' secondary education but who are not taking GCE; it is also on a single subject basis and is controlled by teachers serving in the schools providing candidates. The highest grade of pass in the CSE is intended to be of the same standard as a pass in the GCE O-level. Control over the definition of scope and standards of examinations is exercised by the Schools

¹'Public schools' are usually taken to mean those schools in membership of Headmasters' Conference, the Governing Bodies Association or the Governing Bodies of Girls' Schools Association. They should not be confused with the State-supported public schools in Scotland.

Council for the Curriculum and Examinations (see p. 32) to ensure national comparability. It does not lay down model syllabuses or examination papers but it can put forward ideas and promote research and development.

In Scotland courses in senior secondary schools lead to examinations conducted by the Scottish Certificate of Education Examination Board. School pupils in the fourth year of secondary courses sit an examination at 16 years for the award of passes on the Ordinary grade of the Scottish Certificate of Education, and pupils in the fifth year can obtain passes on the Higher grade of the Scottish Certificate of Education. Examinations at both grades are open to candidates who have left school.

In Northern Ireland candidates may take the Junior Certificate Examination, at about the age of 15, and the Northern Ireland General Certificate of Education, at about the age of 17.

School Building

Local education authorities and voluntary bodies are responsible, under the general supervision of the central departments, for providing the schools and other buildings needed for public education in their areas. The central departments announce the levels of annual building programmes, frame regulations, fix cost limits and decide on the size and nature of the authorities' individual programmes in the light of national priorities; they also offer guidance to authorities by means of building bulletins and in other ways.

An extensive school building programme has been carried out in recent years. This has resulted in the completion of over 8,000 new schools in Britain between 1947 and 1964; together with extensions, alterations and remodelling of existing schools, about 4.5 million new places have been provided, at a cost of about £1,090 million. In England and Wales new work to the value of £130 million has been authorised to start in 1967-68, and £150 million in each of the years 1968-69 and 1969-70. In Scotland the comparable authorisations are for £24 million for each of the three years. In Northern Ireland expenditure is expected to be over £6 million a year.

Grants of up to 80 per cent of the approved cost are normally available from the Department of Education and Science for the building of new voluntary aided schools and for alterations and external repairs to existing aided schools. The Northern Ireland grants amount to 65 per cent of the total cost of the expenditure by voluntary bodies on both new schools and improvements.

The extensive school building programme has been accompanied by new ideas and methods in design and construction. Industrialised building techniques have been widely adopted. The new schools are light, airy and colourful, with a high standard of finish and generous provision of teaching area and outdoor games space.

FURTHER EDUCATION

Further education is a broad term which covers all education beyond the secondary stage; it may be full-time or part-time, vocational or non-vocational. It includes adult education (see p. 41) and higher education (defined on p. 44). For convenience, advanced work at the level of higher education, but carried out at institutions regarded as within the further education system, is dealt with on pp. 40-41.

Institutions

In England and Wales local education authorities maintain about 500 colleges, including colleges of further education, technical and commercial colleges, which provide courses at every level up to that of a degree. In 1966 the Government announced plans to concentrate advanced work in a number of institutions to be called 'polytechnics'.

Five national colleges which provide specialised education appropriate to a particular technology are administered by independent governing bodies and financed by the industry and the Department of Education and Science. They are the colleges for rubber technology; heating, ventilating, refrigeration and fan engineering; agricultural engineering; the National Foundry College; and the National Leathersellers College. The former National College of Food Technology became part of the University of Reading in April 1966.

In Scotland there are about 80 local further education colleges offering full- and part-time day courses and a number of evening courses and several Central Institutions for further education doing advanced work.

In Northern Ireland there are 32 institutions of further education, of which seven conduct advanced level courses, and 145 out-centres.

Finance

Since most of the technical colleges and other further education establishments in Britain are either maintained or aided from public funds, tuition fees are moderate, and often remitted for young people under 18 years of age. Many full-time students are helped by awards from local education authorities. The awards are generally based on the results of the General Certificate of Education or a corresponding examination; they are assessed to cover tuition fees and a maintenance grant, but parents who can afford to contribute towards the cost are required to do so. There are also some scholarships available from endowments, and others are awarded under schemes organised by particular industries or companies for the most promising of their young workers.

Students

In 1964 there were 215,700 full-time and sandwich course (see below) students and $1\frac{3}{4}$ million (including evening) part-time students in technological, technical, art and commercial colleges in Britain (1.6 million in England and Wales, 313,000 in Scotland and 46,500 in Northern Ireland). The total number of students on advanced courses in England and Wales was 158,000, in Scotland 4,900, and in Northern Ireland 1,150.

Courses

The courses provided are full-time, sandwich (up to five years in length, generally consisting of alternate periods of about six months of full-time study in technical college and supervised experience in industry), block

release (on similar principles, but for shorter periods), day release (generally attendance at a technical college for one day a week during working hours), and evening classes.

Sandwich courses are popular at advanced levels. For lower level courses day release and block release courses are replacing evening courses to a large extent and are likely to become more widespread under the guidance of the Industrial Training Boards being established under the Industrial Training Act 1964 to promote and supervise standards of training (see p. 75).

Technical and Technological Courses

There is a wide variety of courses for young people in various trades and occupations, leading to appropriate qualifications at the end of a course of up to five years. There are many leading to the National Certificates approved by joint committees consisting of representatives of the education departments and the appropriate professional body (for example, the Institution of Mechanical Engineers). These courses are normally at two levels, ordinary and higher. The Ordinary Certificate courses last two years part-time and students usually follow them between the ages of 16 and 19; the level of the certificate is generally considered to correspond to GCE A-level. The Higher National Diploma, which requires a further three years' full-time or sandwich study, is recognised as being near degree level; the Higher National Certificate (requiring two further years' part-time study after the Ordinary National Certificate) is lower in standard and more narrowly based. (For degree courses, see p. 45.)

Business Courses

A fair proportion of evening institutes and some independent colleges offer courses in shorthand, typing and book-keeping. Most local technical colleges offer some lower level work; higher level work is generally concentrated in technical colleges with a department of commerce or in specialised colleges of commerce. Young entrants to clerical and other non-technical posts can take an examination for the Certificate in Office Studies.

Some business education is related to the specialised examination requirements of various professional bodies; large numbers of the candidates taking such courses do so through correspondence courses. In England, Wales and Northern Ireland there are part-time courses leading to the Ordinary National Certificate and Higher National Certificate in Business Studies. There are also more advanced full-time and sandwich courses leading to the Ordinary National Diploma and Higher National Diploma in Business Studies. In Scotland, broadly similar courses lead to the Scottish National Certificate and the Scottish Advanced National Certificate in Business Studies awarded by the Scottish Council for Commercial Education.

Adult Education

Adult education is generally taken to mean courses of non-vocational education for people over 18. Such courses are provided—either separately or in conjunction—by local education authorities, various voluntary bodies of which the Workers' Educational Association (WEA) is the most notable,

certain residential colleges, and the adult education ('extra mural') departments of universities.

The residential colleges, the university departments and the voluntary bodies, such as the WEA, recognised by the education departments as competent to provide adult education, receive government grants. So too do various national bodies which promote education activities of a non-political kind, such as the National Federation of Women's Institutes. Many of these bodies also receive grants from local education authorities for services rendered locally.

A major share in the provision of adult education is increasingly being assumed by local education authorities. Most of it is on a part-time basis, mainly in the 8,000 or so evening institutes, which have a total of over a million students, and also in schools of art, adult education centres, community centres, literary institutes and youth clubs. There are 28 short-term residential colleges in Great Britain, maintained or aided by local education authorities, providing courses varying in length between a weekend and a fortnight. Many of the courses are practical, but there are widespread opportunities for academic study.

The Village Colleges pioneered in Cambridgeshire and variously adopted in Cumberland, Monmouthshire, Leicestershire and Peterborough are a local education authority development in rural areas. The colleges are secondary schools planned also as community centres, providing educational, social and cultural centres for adults in the areas served. Community centres, though aided by central educational departments and local authorities, are usually managed by community associations many of which are affiliated to the National Federation of Community Associations.

Six residential colleges (five in England and Wales, one in Scotland) provide courses of one or two years, some of which lead to a diploma. The colleges vary in character, although they all aim at providing a liberal education.

A number of voluntary bodies provide adult education as part of their services. The Women's Institutes and Townswomen's Guilds, for example, generally offer courses in social studies, arts, drama and handicrafts. These too are aided by local education authorities.

In general, courses at the highest levels in liberal studies are provided by the extra-mural departments of the universities, many of which have full-time staff appointed for this purpose and can call on the services of other members of the university staff; and by the Workers' Educational Association, which also employs organising tutors and works closely with the university extra-mural departments. In 1965, 218,881 students in England and Wales attended such courses.

The National Institute of Adult Education provides in London a centre of information, research and publication for adult education, as well as a channel of co-operation and consultation for the many organisations in England and Wales which are interested in this subject. It is largely financed by contributions from local education authorities and assisted by a grant from the Department of Education and Science. The Scottish Institute of Adult Education is the corresponding body in Scotland.

Changes in the structure of adult education in Northern Ireland and increased government grants are resulting from acceptance of the main recom-

mendations of the report, published in 1964, of the committee under Sir Charles Morris.

TEACHERS AND TEACHING

Teachers are appointed by local education authorities or school governing bodies or managers. In 1965 there were about 328,600 full-time and 33,000 part-time (equivalent to 16,000 full-time) teachers in publicly maintained primary and secondary schools in Britain, an average of one teacher to 31.5 pupils; but because of the shortage of teachers, particularly those for younger children, and their uneven distribution throughout the country, many classes have more than the statutory maxima of pupils (40 pupils for primary and 30 for secondary school classes in England and Wales; in Scotland 45 for primary, 40 for classes in the first three years and 30 for classes in subsequent years of secondary departments). The rise in school population has created a need for more and more teachers; although greater numbers are entering the colleges of education (see p. 46), more university graduates are turning to teaching, and many married women, formerly teachers, are returning to the profession, yet more are needed if the Government's aim of eliminating oversize classes is to be achieved. In 1965 there were over 36,000 full-time teachers in grant-aided establishments of further education in Britain, other than colleges of advanced technology and central institutions (see p. 39), and, because of the special conditions, many more part-time teachers. Most teachers in technical colleges have industrial and professional experience.

There are national salary scales for teachers in schools and other educational institutions maintained from public funds in England and Wales, in Scotland, and in Northern Ireland.

Teaching Aids and Educational Techniques

Radio broadcasts to schools and colleges of further education are well established. In 1965-66 the School Broadcasting Department of the BBC sent out 62 different radio series, some of which were repeated within each week; they were used by about 74 per cent of schools (32,000) in Britain. Television reaches about 30 per cent of schools (some 13,000); 19 weekly programmes, all repeated the same week, were broadcast by the BBC and 13 series of weekly programmes, many of which were repeated, were produced by the three main independent companies (Rediffusion Limited, Granada and Associated TeleVision) and networked nationally. In addition, local series of programmes were produced by three of the regional companies (Scottish, Grampian and Ulster Television).

Radio provides a great variety of educational programmes for adults, both vocational and non-vocational; most of them are grouped in the 'Study Session' hourly programmes on five nights a week. Television programmes for similar audiences have grown fast; they are mostly shown on Sunday mornings and late in the evening during the week. There have also been a number of experimental projects sponsored between the BBC, some of the independent television companies, universities, local education authorities and a voluntary body, the National Extension College (NEC). The Government is considering the establishment of a University of the Air, an open

university offering degree, refresher and similar courses in which series of radio and television programmes would be combined with other adult educational provision.

Both the BBC and Independent Television Authority (ITA) have educational advisory bodies and there is consultation between the two broadcasting services to prevent duplication of education programmes.

More recent developments include the use of aids which take over part of the repetitive teaching functions, allowing more of the teacher's time to be devoted to individual pupils. There has been a rapid development in the use of programmed learning and a National Centre for Programmed Learning has been established in the Department of Education at the University of Birmingham. Language laboratories (using tape recorders in individual booths) are being used at all levels of the educational system. Closed circuit television is in regular use at several universities, medical schools, colleges of education, technical colleges and schools.

UNIVERSITIES AND OTHER HIGHER EDUCATION

The system of higher education includes universities, colleges of education and advanced courses at various colleges in the further education system (advanced courses are dealt with on pp. 40–41 and higher education in Northern Ireland, on p. 48). The expansion of higher education has been accelerated by the Government's acceptance of the target figures up to 1973–74 and the substance of certain other important recommendations of the Committee on Higher Education under Lord Robbins's chairmanship. The committee's report, published in 1963, suggested that by 1973–74 there should be 390,000 places in higher education, of which 218,000 should be in university institutions. In 1965 the Government decided that 122,000 of the remaining places should be for training teachers, a move that will almost double the the number of teachers in training.

Further expansion of technological education and the selective development of institutions is being encouraged. These include the Imperial College of Science and Technology (University of London), University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology and Strathclyde University.

Colleges of education are undergoing the most rapid expansion of all the institutions of higher education. It is now possible for some of their students to take degrees by means of a four-year course.

Universities and University Colleges

The number of universities in Great Britain will shortly be over 40. Although the Government is responsible for providing nearly three-quarters of universities' income it does not control their work or teaching nor does it have direct dealings with the universities. It is advised, and its grants distributed, by the University Grants Committee, whose members are appointed for their personal, academic or industrial experience.

The English universities (including the former colleges of advanced technology (CATs) which are in the process of attaining university status and whose new names are given where known) are: Aston (Birmingham), Bath, Birmingham, Bradford, Bristol, Brunel, Cambridge, Chelsea College of Science and Technology (London), City (London), Durham, East Anglia,

Essex, Exeter, Hull, Keele, Kent (Canterbury), Lancaster, Leeds, Leicester, Liverpool, London, Loughborough University of Technology, Manchester, Newcastle upon Tyne, Nottingham, Oxford, Reading, Salford, Sheffield, Southampton, Surrey, Sussex, Warwick and York. There is a University of Wales; the Welsh College of Advanced Technology which, like other CATs, is to attain university status; and St. David's College, Lampeter, whose arts degree courses are aided by grants through the sponsorship of the University College of South Wales and Monmouthshire. The Scottish universities are: Aberdeen, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Heriot-Watt, St. Andrews, Stirling (due to take its first students in 1967) and Strathclyde. Queen's College, Dundee, preparing to become a university independent of St. Andrews on 1st August 1967, will be Scotland's fourth new university.

There are three other institutions where the work is predominantly of university standard: University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology, whose students read for degrees of the University of Manchester, and the two postgraduate business schools which are supported jointly by industry and the Government. These are the Manchester School of Management and Administration which started its first course in October 1965 and the London Graduate School of Business Studies, associated with the London School of Economics and the Imperial College of Science and Technology, which started in February 1966.

The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge date from the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, and the Scottish Universities of St. Andrews, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Edinburgh from the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. All the other universities were founded in the nineteenth or twentieth centuries.

University Finance

The Government contributes over 70 per cent towards the current income of universities and about 90 per cent towards their capital programmes. Money for recurrent purposes is given in the form of a block grant to the University Grants Committee, which then allocates it between the universities. In addition to those for building work, grants are also made for purchasing sites and properties, for professional fees and equipment. Further sums are raised by the universities themselves.

Studies and Degrees

Courses in arts and science are offered by most universities. At nearly all universities courses are available in one or more applied sciences: Imperial College, London, University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology, the University of Strathclyde and the former colleges of advanced technology concentrate on technology although some of them are now offering a number of courses in social studies, modern languages and other non-technological subjects. At the beginning of the academic year 1964-65, 44 per cent of full-time university students (excluding those at CATs) in Great Britain were taking arts or social studies courses and 41 per cent were studying science or technology; a further 10 per cent were studying medicine and the remainder dentistry, agriculture, forestry or veterinary science.

University degree courses generally extend over three or four years, though in medicine, dentistry and veterinary science five or six years are required.

The first degree of Bachelor (Master, for Arts, in the older Scottish universities) is awarded on the completion of such a course, depending on satisfactory examination results. Further study or research is required at the modern universities for the degree of Master and by all universities for that of Doctor. Actual degree titles vary according to the practice of each university. Diplomas and certificates are awarded after shorter courses in some subjects.

University teaching combines lectures, practical classes (in scientific subjects) and small group teaching in either seminars or tutorials, the last being a traditional feature of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

Most members of the academic staffs devote time to research and at all universities there are postgraduate students engaged in research.

Students

Admission to the universities is by examination and selection; there is no religious test and no colour bar. Women are admitted on equal terms with men, but at Cambridge their numbers are limited by statute. The general proportion of men to women students is nearly three to one; at Oxford it is six to one, and at Cambridge ten to one.

At the beginning of the academic year 1965–66 there were 167,000 full-time university students including 16,500 from the former CATs and Heriot-Watt College. Over 27,000 were postgraduate. There were also about 25,000 part-time students, about three-fifths of whom were working for university-level qualifications.

Nearly a third of all full-time students in Great Britain are in colleges or halls of residence, just over half are in lodgings and the remainder live at home.

Staff

In 1965–66 there were about 20,000 full-time university teachers in Great Britain; about 10 per cent of them were professors. The ratio of staff to students was about 1 to 10.

Colleges of Education

Teachers in maintained schools must hold qualifications approved by the education departments. In England and Wales the majority qualify by undertaking a three-year course of studies at a college of education. Plans are being worked out to give wider opportunities for college students to obtain a degree (Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.)) as well as a professional qualification by means of a four-year course. University graduates and certain specialist teachers are qualified by their degree or specialist qualification although many do an additional one-year course at a university or college of education. There are special shortened courses for well-qualified older students. In Scotland all men teachers and all teachers in secondary schools must be graduates (or have equivalent qualifications) and must have taken a course of teacher training. Women primary school teachers may qualify by taking a three-year course at a college of education. Under the Teaching Council (Scotland) Act 1965, a General Teaching Council has been set up to take over almost complete powers over the profession ex-

cluding salary matters but including the function of compiling a register of teachers, admission to which will replace the former system of qualification by certificate.

In England and Wales there are 155 colleges of education (14 of which are for day students only; at least one more day college is expected to open in 1966–67); 26 university departments of education, four colleges for training teachers for technical institutions and 16 art teacher-training centres. In 1965–66 there were over 72,700 students in the colleges of education (including 3,400 in the day colleges), nearly 4,700 in the university departments of education, and 1,900 in the technical and art training establishments: a total of some 79,300 students in all. In Scotland there are nine colleges of education; a tenth is expected to open in October 1966. The number of students in training is being expanded from 7,800 in 1964 to over 11,000 in 1973–74.

As a result of the colleges' rapid expansion, in the eight years to 1966, student numbers rose from 28,000 to nearly 73,000 and are likely to exceed 80,000 in 1966–67. The target of teacher-training places for 1973–74 is 114,000. Other measures to help provide enough teachers for the rising school population are mainly aimed at attracting back into teaching former teachers, now married, and increasing the numbers of part-time teachers. More day training colleges are being opened, some training is to be organised on a part-time basis and there are more refresher courses, and more nursery classes for children of potential teachers.

The education departments, universities, local education authorities and other bodies provide a variety of short courses for practising teachers.

Other Higher Education

Many students in Great Britain (over 158,000 in 1964–65) take advanced courses outside universities in a wide variety of subjects including architecture, art and design, catering, engineering, natural sciences and business studies. In 1964 the Council for National Academic Awards was established with powers to award degrees and other academic distinctions to students who successfully completed approved courses at educational establishments other than universities. There are now over 80 courses, most of them in science and technology (where the council has carried on the work of the National Council for Technical Awards which it superseded) but also in subjects such as arts, social studies, business studies, law and librarianship. The council must ensure that its degrees (BA and BSc, MA, MSc and MPhil, and the PhD awarded for programmes of original work approved by the council) are comparable with those of universities. The council's powers extend to the whole of Great Britain.

Management studies are provided by universities and technical colleges, by individual companies and by trade and industrial federations (for the two postgraduate business schools, see p. 45). Certain independent colleges specialise in management training. Several universities have introduced management studies into the curriculum and courses for the postgraduate Diploma in Management Studies are run by certain technical colleges. In Scotland courses leading to the Certificate of Business Administration are provided for students in junior supervisory positions.

Scholarships and Other Awards

Scholarships and other awards are now very widely available, for it is the national educational policy that no able boy or girl shall be prevented by lack of means from taking an advanced course at a university or elsewhere. Over 90 per cent of university students in Great Britain are aided from public or private funds.

In England, Wales and Scotland all British students with certain qualifications are eligible for awards from public funds in order to attend full-time at a university, college of education or major further education establishment. In England and Wales local education authorities provide awards. In Scotland students' allowances for advanced courses are awarded by the Scottish Education Department. The amount of the award depends upon the income of the student and his parents. Studentships for advanced postgraduate study are offered annually by the Department of Education and Science and by the Scottish Education Department. In 1965 over 3,300 studentships were offered in the sciences and 880 in arts and social sciences—an increase on previous years.

Northern Ireland

Higher education in Northern Ireland is also expanding. The Government accepted most of the recommendations put forward in 1965 by the committee, under Sir John Lockwood's chairmanship, on higher education in Northern Ireland. The Government agreed that there should be between 8,000 and 9,000 full-time university places by 1973–74 and that there should be a second university, at Coleraine.

Technological studies are to be concentrated at the existing university, Queen's, Belfast, and the Lockwood Committee recommended that the new university should concentrate on the biological sciences. The Government also accepted in principle the committee's proposals for teacher training. An education centre for non-graduate teachers is to be established within the new university and the general teacher-training colleges are to be renamed colleges of education and brought into closer association with Queen's University. Higher education outside the universities is to be centred on a new Ulster College ultimately envisaged as an association of the colleges of technology, art, domestic science and other colleges providing a Northern Ireland service.

Queen's University, Belfast, and a recognised college, Magee University College, Londonderry (which is to be integrated into the university at Coleraine) had a total of 5,000 students in 1965–66. Recurrent expenditure in 1965–66 was estimated at £2 million. Government grants are made by the Ministry of Education which usually first seeks the advice of the University Grants Committee. Teacher training takes places in one university department of education and six training colleges, which had over 100 and 2,000 full-time students respectively in 1965–66. Technological education outside the university sphere is given under the sponsorship of the Joint Authority for Higher Technological Studies. Under the proposed reorganisation this work will be transferred to the Regional College of Technology and the Joint Authority will be wound up. University and further education scholarships are awarded by local authorities and postgraduate awards and teacher-training

scholarships by the Ministry of Education, the conditions of award being identical with those for Great Britain.

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Research into the theory and practice of education and the organisation of educational services is supported financially by the educational departments, local education authorities, philanthropic organisations, universities and teachers' associations. The Social Science Research Council is an additional channel for government support.

The greater proportion of educational research is done in the universities, particularly within departments or institutes of education and departments concerned with sociology, psychology, statistics and problems of physical and mental handicap. Outside universities, the major research institute is the National Foundation for Educational Research, an autonomous body which derives its income mainly from corporate members, including local education authorities, teachers' organisations and universities and from an annual grant from the Department of Education and Science. There are also the Scottish Council for Research in Education and the Northern Ireland Council for Educational Research. The Schools Council sponsors a number of projects in England and Wales.

There is no single central organisation for the co-ordination of educational research, but the central departments, by their allocation of funds for projects, exercise some influence on the direction of research effort. In 1965-66 the Department of Education and Science had a total commitment of about £1.2 million spread over 120 projects, and current expenditure exceeded £250,000; the Scottish Education Department's grant to the Scottish Council and other research bodies totalled £30,000.

Among philanthropic organisations that provide generously for research are the Nuffield Foundation (see p. 25) and Ford Foundation, the Gulbenkian Trust, the Leverhulme Trust, the Rockefeller Foundation and the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust.

OTHER CULTURAL INFLUENCES

Assistance and encouragement is given to the arts by the Government, local authorities and voluntary organisations. A Minister with special responsibility for the arts was appointed for the first time in 1964 and in 1965 a White Paper, *A Policy for the Arts: the First Steps*, was published, indicating a new and positive policy for encouraging the arts in Great Britain. The Government is advised by various bodies, including the Standing Commission on Museums and Galleries and the Royal Fine Art Commission and most of its aid is channelled through executive bodies, for example, the Arts Councils of Great Britain and of Northern Ireland,¹ the British Council,² the British

¹The Arts Council of Great Britain, established under Royal Charter in 1946; its main duties are to increase the accessibility of the fine arts to the public, to improve the standard of execution in the fine arts, and to advise and to co-operate with government departments, local authorities and other organisations on any matter connected with these aims. The Arts Council of Northern Ireland, which has similar functions, was established in 1963.

²The British Council, founded in 1934, exists to promote a wider knowledge of the United Kingdom and the English language overseas and to develop closer cultural relations with other countries.

Film Institute, and the Council of Industrial Design. Government grants largely finance museums and galleries which are open to the public free of charge. In addition, local authorities may use part of the revenue from the rates towards the encouragement of the arts.

There are some 900 museums and art galleries open to the public, and art exhibitions are shown at many different centres by the Arts Council. Seasons of orchestral concerts are promoted in all the large towns; in London the principal concert halls are the Royal Festival Hall and the Royal Albert Hall. There are about 2,000 cinemas in Great Britain and some 200 professional theatres (about 40 of them in London). Among the companies receiving government grants are the English Stage Company, the Mermaid, the Royal Shakespeare Theatre Company and the National Theatre Company, formed in 1963, which is at present using the Old Vic Theatre but will eventually play in the new National Theatre, to be built on the south bank of the Thames, London. Regular seasons of opera and ballet are given at the Royal Opera House, Covent Garden, and the Sadler's Wells Theatre in London, and special performances of opera are given every year at Glyndebourne in Sussex. The provincial theatres are served either by touring London companies or by local repertory companies. Festivals of music and other arts are held annually in many towns and cities throughout Britain, and include the Edinburgh International Festival of Music and Drama, the Llangollen International Eisteddfod, the National Eisteddfod of Wales and the Cheltenham Festival of contemporary British music.

Over 26,300 separate book titles were published in Britain in 1965. There are several thousand libraries throughout the country, including the great 'copyright' libraries (the British Museum, the National Libraries of Scotland and Wales, the Bodleian Library at Oxford and the Cambridge University Library), which are entitled to receive a copy of each new work published; libraries of other universities and learned institutions; subscription libraries; and the public library services, which provide more than 40,000 service points and hold over 80 million books.

The two broadcasting authorities, the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) and the Independent Television Authority (ITA) through their television and, in the case of the BBC, sound broadcasting services, provide daily programmes which are accessible to almost the whole population and which contain music of all kinds, drama, discussion and information on current affairs, apart from their specifically educational programmes (see p. 43).

YOUTH SERVICES¹

THE OBJECT of the youth services in Britain is to provide for the leisure-time activities of young people under 21 years of age, and to offer them opportunities—complementary to those of home, formal education and work—for discovering and developing their personal resources, so that they may be better equipped to be responsible members of the community. Membership of youth organisations is voluntary and the facilities they offer are sufficiently varied to appeal to every type of boy and girl.

State and Voluntary Partnership

Responsibility for youth services in the United Kingdom is shared by the education departments, local education authorities, voluntary organisations and the Churches. There is no attempt to impose uniformity or to create any national youth organisation. A number of youth organisations have spontaneously developed over the last century, mainly by voluntary effort. In 1939 what is now called the Youth Service came into being as a partnership of voluntary organisations, local authorities and central government.

The status of youth services as an essential part of the educational system of Great Britain was confirmed by the Education Act 1944 and the Education (Scotland) Act 1945; in Northern Ireland, youth welfare work is promoted under the Education Act 1947 and the Youth Welfare, Physical Training and Recreation Act 1962.

The education departments provide grants in aid of the administrative and training work of national voluntary youth organisations, towards the expense of training full-time youth leaders and towards the cost of premises and equipment of youth clubs provided by voluntary bodies.

Local education authorities co-operate with voluntary organisations in their areas: most give some financial help and lend premises and equipment; most also employ youth organisers to help in the promotion and encouragement of youth work. Where voluntary services are considered inadequate, local authorities themselves organise youth centres and clubs. Most local authorities have appointed youth committees on which official and voluntary bodies are represented.

In addition to grants received from the State and local authorities, voluntary organisations may receive help for special projects from charitable trusts, notably from the King George's Jubilee Trust (see p. 54).² The greater part of the funds of the voluntary organisations is, however, raised by their own efforts.

Since 1960 developments in the Youth Service have been greatly influenced by the recommendations of a committee set up to examine the service, under the chairmanship of the Countess of Albemarle.³ On the advice of the Youth Service Development Council, formed as a result of one of the committee's recommendations, the Department of Education and Science is making larger grants towards the headquarters expenses of national voluntary youth organisations and special grants for voluntary projects, some of which are experimental; it authorised a building programme for the

¹For fuller information, see COI reference paper R.5506 *Youth Services in Britain*.

²In addition during the years 1953–60 the King George VI Foundation distributed nearly £1·2 million for projects from the memorial fund in remembrance of the King.

³*The Youth Service in England and Wales*, Cmnd. 929.

period 1960–66 at an estimated cost of £20·5 million and co-operated with a local education authority in designing an experimental club; and, to supplement existing facilities, established a national training college at Leicester for youth leaders. Local authorities' contributions to the Youth Service have also increased; their expenditure for 1965–66 was estimated at £5·8 million. Progress made in the Youth Service since the publication of the 1960 report is being considered by a committee of the Youth Service Development Council, of which Lady Albemarle is chairman.

The Albemarle Committee's enquiry extended only to England and Wales, youth provision in Scotland having already been the subject of reports by advisory bodies; but some of its main recommendations applied to Scotland, while others reflected the existing Scottish position. A Standing Consultative Council on Youth Service in Scotland, with functions similar to those of the Youth Service Development Council for England and Wales, was set up by the Secretary of State for Scotland in December 1959. It was reconstituted in 1964 and given wider scope as the Standing Consultative Council on Youth and Community Service. In 1963 permanent arrangements for training in youth leadership for full-time youth leaders and organisers were made. More money is being made available from central funds to national voluntary organisations in Scotland and, as in England and Wales, increased expenditure on youth services by Scottish education authorities (estimated at £1 million in 1965–66) is taken into account in calculating the Exchequer general grant.

A White Paper on the development of youth services was presented to the Northern Ireland Parliament in 1961. This did not propose any change in the general pattern of youth services but local education authorities were urged to take a more active part in youth work than they had previously done. Such changes as required statutory authority were given effect in the Youth Welfare, Physical Training and Recreation Act (Northern Ireland) 1962. The functions of the Youth Committee, set up in 1944, were taken over by the Youth and Sports Council and extended to reflect the larger part to be played in youth welfare by the local education authorities and sports organisations. Statutory provision was made for larger Ministry grants towards the training costs and salaries of full-time youth leaders and for expenditure on playing fields.

The Voluntary Organisations

The voluntary organisations vary greatly in character since nearly all of them were formed to serve specific groups of young people; some of them provide educational and religious activities as well as social and recreational pursuits for their members, and all of them seek to inculcate high ideals of personal conduct and service to the community.

Twenty-seven national voluntary youth organisations with memberships of at least 10,000 are constituent members of the Standing Conference of National Voluntary Youth Organisations, a consultative body which takes action only in the name of its member bodies and with their consent. A further 26 bodies are associate or observer members, for example, the Church of England Youth Council, which represents about 272,000 young people who are members of clubs sponsored by the Church of England. The corresponding body in Scotland is the Scottish Standing Conference of Voluntary

Youth Organisations, in Northern Ireland the Standing Conference of Youth Organisations, and in Wales the Standing Conference for Wales of Voluntary Youth Organisations.

These major organisations have a total United Kingdom membership of about 3 million young people under 21.

Among the youth organisations with a mainly religious origin and purpose are the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) and Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA), with approximately 48,000 and 18,000 members under 21 respectively; the Boys' Brigade (149,000), the Church Lads' Brigade (13,000), the Girls' Life Brigade (63,000), the Girls' Friendly Society (20,000), Girls' Guildry (28,000), the Methodist Association of Youth Clubs (163,000), the Salvation Army Youth Organisations (105,000), the Catholic Young Men's Society of Great Britain (25,000), the National Council for Catholic Youth Clubs (37,000), the Young Christian Workers (17,000), the Grail (14,000), and the Association for Jewish Youth (18,000).

The Boy Scouts Association and Girl Guides Association have world-wide affiliations; they are undenominational and non-political, and were founded by Lord Baden-Powell in 1908 and 1910 to develop character and good citizenship in boys and girls. They have various sections, based on age groups, but most of their members are under 16 years. Their total United Kingdom membership under 21 is about 477,000 scouts and 552,000 guides.

The National Association of Boys' Clubs, with about 2,000 affiliated clubs and 155,000 members, and the National Association of Youth Clubs, with over 3,000 affiliated clubs and 234,000 members, are concerned mainly with the 14 to 20 age-group. Each affiliated club has its own rules, but all aim at giving young people opportunities to develop into mature members of society. Representatives from clubs form local committees and these send representatives to the national members' councils.

The pre-Service organisations for boys (the Combined Cadet Force, Army Cadet Force and Air Training Corps) combine social, educational and physical development with training for possible entry into the armed forces; their combined membership is about 125,000. The Sea Cadet Corps, although not a pre-Service organisation, helps boys who wish to make their career at sea; its membership is about 16,800. The Girls' Venture Corps, with about 4,000 members, formed in 1964 from the Girls' Training Corps and the Women's Junior Air Corps, has an Air Wing offering aviation courses.

The National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs in England and Wales has about 38,000 members between 10 and 25 years old, the Scottish Association of Young Farmers' Clubs has about 7,500 and Northern Ireland Young Farmer Clubs over 4,000 members: in addition to encouraging interest in agriculture and appreciation of country life, the clubs provide training in citizenship and develop ability to serve the community.

The Welsh League of Youth (*Urdd Gobaith Cymru*) has a membership of about 43,000; its aim is the 'development of Christian citizenship among the youth of Wales', and its work takes full account of the Welsh background of its members.

The Youth Hostels Associations in England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland have a network of hostels for walkers and cyclists, particularly intended for young people of limited means. They seek to promote

knowledge and love of the countryside, and are closely linked with each other and with similar organisations in other countries.

Adult organisations with youth sections include the British Red Cross Society, St. John Ambulance Brigade and the political parties.

Other Organisations Concerned with Youth Work

King George's Jubilee Trust was established in 1935 by King George V, to promote the welfare of the younger generation. Since its inauguration it has disbursed over £1.5 million to the headquarters of the principal voluntary youth organisations and to many local projects, particularly those of an experimental nature.

In 1966 about 117,000 young people between the ages of 14 and 20 are taking part in the Duke of Edinburgh's Award, which is a scheme operated by local authorities, schools, youth organisations, industrial firms and other bodies, and is designed as a challenge to boys and girls to reach certain standards of achievement in three progressive stages in leisure-time activities. The scheme for boys covers sections on public service, pursuits and interests, expeditions and fitness. The scheme for girls is divided into sections on design for living, interests, and adventure and service. A number of Commonwealth countries, including Canada, Australia and New Zealand, now operate the scheme.

The Outward Bound Trust maintains in Great Britain five schools for boys which offer 26-day character-building courses, based on adventure and overcoming testing experiences. There is a similar school for girls, with modified courses. About 5,000 boys and 850 girls take part each year. The courses are mainly for boys and girls aged 16 to 19 years; but there are also junior courses for boys and girls aged 14 to 16 and senior courses for young people up to 25 years old, which are of particular value to potential teachers and youth leaders.

The aims of the Central Council of Physical Recreation, the Scottish Council of Physical Recreation and the National Playing Fields Association bring them into touch with many youth organisations.

In addition to organisations on a nation-wide basis, there are a large number of town, district or village social clubs run by voluntary groups for general or particular purposes; photographic societies, folk dance, table tennis or jazz clubs, for instance. In small communities social clubs may not be specifically for young people but those with the more strenuous activities (for example, tennis clubs) usually have a high proportion of young people as members.

PLANNING AND HOUSING¹

TOWN AND COUNTRY PLANNING

BRITAIN IS one of the most densely populated areas in the world and it is essential to plan land use for a satisfactory national distribution of employment and population, to undertake a programme of urban renewal, to build new towns and to preserve the amenities of the countryside.

Planning in Great Britain

The Town and Country Planning Act 1962 (which consolidated earlier planning legislation in England and Wales) and the Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act 1947 are the principal Acts that govern the pattern of land use in Great Britain. They provide for the co-ordination of planning by means of development plans drawn up by local planning authorities and approved by the Minister of Housing and Local Government, the Secretary of State for Scotland and, (since 1965) the Secretary of State for Wales; and they control development by making it subject, generally, to the permission of a local planning authority or of a central government department. They also give extensive powers to public authorities to acquire and develop land for planning purposes, and deal with certain questions of amenity, for instance, the preservation of buildings of special historic or architectural interest, and of trees and woodlands, and the control of advertisement display. The Land Commission Bill 1966 provided for the establishment of a commission with wide powers to acquire, manage and dispose of land for development, and to impose a levy on the development value of land in order to recover some part of the betterment value for the community.

Development Plans

Under the town and country planning legislation local planning authorities (in England and Wales, the councils of counties and county boroughs, the London authorities and, in some areas, joint planning boards; and in Scotland, councils of counties and of large burghs, and the councils of the two small burghs of St. Andrews and Thurso) were required to prepare and submit development plans covering the whole of their areas to the Minister of Housing and Local Government and to the Secretary of State for Scotland respectively for their approval. Each development plan includes maps and a written statement describing the major projects in the plan and is accompanied by a report giving the background to the plan in terms of existing land use, communications and similar matters. Plans normally cover a period of about 20 years; they must be reviewed at least once in every five years, and may be extended and altered at any time so that they are kept up to date. Control of development is exercised by local planning authorities in accordance with the development plans.

Proposals for changes in their plans must be advertised by the planning authorities and the Ministers concerned must consider objections and representations from the public. Usually a public local enquiry has to be held before the proposals are decided. A planning advisory group² has proposed that the procedure might be made more efficient if the Minister of Housing

¹For fuller information see COI reference pamphlets RF.P. 5355 *Town and Country Planning in Britain* and RF.P. 4506 *The New Towns of Britain*.

²*The Future of Development Plans*, HMSO, 1965, 10s.

and Local Government retained supervision of the plans' broad principles and strategy while the local planning authorities would assume responsibility for detailed local plans.

Regional Planning

Machinery for planning on a regional basis has been set up by the Government. Studies showing the economic and social resources in several regions have been made and certain areas, where land, communications and facilities are favourable, have been proposed as places where development should be concentrated.

The Location of Industry

The Town and Country Planning Acts and the Local Employment Acts 1960 and 1963 contain provisions relating to the location of industry and offices. General problems of industrial development are dealt with jointly by a number of government departments, but the consent of the local planning authority is, as a rule, required for any new industrial building, any extension of a building or any change in the use of an existing building. Financial incentives to encourage the location of industry in particular areas have been made available by successive governments. Special control of office building in and around London and in Birmingham was instituted under the Control of Office and Industrial Development Act 1965; and in 1966 a more general Building Control Bill provided for a licensing system for commercial projects worth more than £100,000.

New Towns

The New Towns Act 1946 gave the Minister of Housing and Local Government and the Secretary of State for Scotland power to make an order designating any area of land (which may include any existing town or other centre of population) as the site of a proposed new town, and in 1965 the same power was given to the Secretary of State for Wales. The appropriate Minister must consult the local authorities in and around the area about the proposal. Once the site has been designated, the Minister appoints a development corporation (consisting of a chairman, a deputy chairman and up to seven other members) to be responsible for the development of the new town.

The development corporations have powers in general (subject to the consent of the Minister of Housing and Local Government, the Secretary of State for Scotland or the Secretary of State for Wales) to acquire, by agreement or compulsory purchase, land or property within the designated areas, or, in some cases, land near to or outside those areas, and they may provide houses, flats, commercial and industrial premises, estate roads and other buildings or services essential for the development of the towns. In England and Wales the development corporations need not obtain planning permission from the local planning authorities; nor, in Scotland, need the corporations of Cumbernauld, East Kilbride and Livingston new towns.

The capital cost of developing the new towns is advanced to the corporations from public funds and is repayable over 60 years out of the income from the property. The corporations submit annual reports (which include copies

of their audited accounts) to the Ministers who lay them before Parliament.

As each new town in England and Wales is substantially completed the development corporation is dissolved and, under the terms of the New Towns Act 1959, its assets and liabilities are handed over to a central agency—the Commission for New Towns. The commission has assumed responsibility for Crawley, Hemel Hempstead, Welwyn and Hatfield. It is responsible for maintaining and enhancing the value of the land entrusted to it; but in discharging its functions it is required to have regard to the purpose for which the towns were established, and to the convenience and welfare of the people working and living in them. The Government proposes to abolish the commission so that the local authorities might take greater responsibility for the development of the new towns. No new towns central authority has been proposed for Scotland, where new town development is at a less advanced stage.

Twenty-one new towns have been, or are being, established in Great Britain: 17 in England and Wales and four in Scotland. Eight of the new towns in England and Wales (Basildon and Harlow in Essex; Hemel Hempstead, Stevenage, Hatfield, and Welwyn in Hertfordshire; Crawley in Sussex; and Bracknell in Berkshire) are designed to help in absorbing excess population from the Greater London area; of the others, Corby in Northamptonshire, Aycliffe, Peterlee and Washington in Durham, and Cwmbran in Monmouthshire are to serve the special needs of their areas; Skelmersdale in Lancashire and Runcorn in Cheshire are to meet the overspill needs of Liverpool; Redditch in Worcestershire and Dawley in Shropshire will take population from Birmingham. Proposals have been announced for a development of Dawley with the area around Wellington-Oakengates and further large-scale expansions are to take place in the Leyland-Chorley area of Lancashire, to take population from Manchester, around Bletchley in north Buckinghamshire, to provide housing for people from London, and in mid-Wales. The Government has also proposed big expansion of the towns of Ipswich, Peterborough, Northampton and Warrington under the New Towns Act. Proposals for large new areas of development to relieve the pressure on London are under review. These include the Southampton-Portsmouth, Ashford and Swindon regions recommended in *The South-East Study 1961–81*.¹

The Scottish new towns (East Kilbride in Lanarkshire, Glenrothes in Fife, Cumbernauld in Dunbartonshire, and Livingston in West Lothian) are helping to house people from Glasgow. Livingston is also to be a focus for industrial activity in the central belt of Scotland. A further expansion is proposed at Irvine in Ayrshire.

In Northern Ireland it is planned to create a new city, Craigavon, and to expand a number of key towns including Antrim and Ballymena (see p. 62).

The new towns represent a notable achievement in positive land use. They are generally recognised as one of the most successful post-war experiments, both socially and industrially, and as a profitable long-term investment. Nearly half a million people have moved into the new towns in the past two decades and to meet their needs an extensive building and civil engineering programme has provided houses, flats, factories, schools, shops, churches, roads, water supplies and sewerage on a very large scale. Additional

¹HMSO 1964, 15s.

services such as gas and electricity, police, fire and bus stations, postal, telegraph and telephone facilities, new health centres and libraries have been provided as well as public buildings including the town hall and law courts; and most of the towns are well equipped with parks and playing fields of various kinds. All towns have become concerned with the increasingly high level of car ownership of their inhabitants and are making more adequate provision for parking and the segregation of pedestrians from motorists.

A number of the more developed towns are becoming regional centres and, as the populations grow large enough to give the necessary support, offices and hotels as well as full entertainment and recreational facilities such as skating rinks, dance halls, bowling alleys, swimming pools, sports stadia, golf courses and youth centres are gradually being provided.

Under the New Towns Act 1946 Parliament approved a consolidated fund of £50 million to provide for advances to the development corporations for work on the new towns. This fund was increased by subsequent Acts and now stands at £550 million. A total of about £400 million had been advanced to the corporations by the end of 1965.

Town Development Schemes

The Town Development Act 1952 makes provision for the relief of congestion in large industrial towns in England and Wales (such as London and Birmingham) by encouraging the transfer of population and industry from these areas to places suitable for expansion. The Housing and Town Development (Scotland) Act 1957 makes similar provision for Scotland. Schemes have been approved for providing some 160,000 homes in this way, of which more than one-quarter have been completed or are under construction. Most of the expanding towns—Basingstoke in Hampshire, Thetford in Norfolk and Aylesbury in Buckinghamshire—are already well established.

Redevelopment of outworn and obsolete areas is taking place in many towns: Glasgow, for example, has started a programme of rebuilding 30 areas, housing nearly a third of its population and accommodating much of the industry and commerce of the city. The Buchanan report¹ which assessed the conflicting demands of traffic and environmental standards has influenced many authorities' redevelopment plans. A centre for environmental studies has been set up by the Government to consider the problems of urban renewal in the light of a fast growing mobile population.

Green Belts

In order to restrict the further sprawl of the large built-up areas, to prevent adjacent towns merging into one another, and in some cases to preserve the special character of a town and the amenities of the countryside, the policy has been adopted of establishing 'green belts' around all or part of certain urban areas. There is a general proscription against most new development in these areas but the need for more land for housing is so great that a certain limited use of green belt areas for residential building has to be considered. However, a balance between amenity and housing needs must be struck.

¹*Traffic in Towns*, HMSO 1963, 50s.

Preservation and Development of Amenities

Responsibility for the preservation of the historic, scenic and architectural beauties of Great Britain is vested mainly in the Minister of Housing and Local Government, the Secretary of State for Scotland, the Secretary of State for Wales, and the local planning authorities. Lists of buildings of special architectural or historic interest are being compiled and so far more than 110,000 buildings have been listed. The Ministry of Public Building and Works is responsible for the maintenance of royal parks and palaces, for the protection of ancient monuments (under the Ancient Monuments Acts), and for making grants¹ (on the recommendation of the appropriate Historic Buildings Council) for the repair and maintenance of buildings of outstanding historic or architectural interest or their contents and for the upkeep of adjoining land. Over 700 of the more important protected monuments in Britain (they are visited by nearly 9 million people annually) are in the care of the Ministry; and grants totalling over £6 million have been made towards the cost of urgently needed repairs to over 1,200 historic buildings in England, Scotland and Wales.

The Town and Country Planning Acts 1947 gave local planning authorities power, for instance, to protect trees and woodlands by means of tree preservation orders (some 5,000 of which are in force throughout Great Britain), to prevent mineral workings becoming permanent eyesores by attaching suitable conditions to planning permissions, and to restrict or regulate the display of advertisements in the interests of amenity or public safety. Local authorities are also empowered, under the Clean Air Act 1956, to declare 'smoke control areas', in which the emission of smoke from chimneys constitutes an offence. Local authorities are also surveying coastal areas under their responsibility to establish which parts should be protected and which are more suitable for development.

Voluntary amenity societies, wholly dependent upon the support of their members, include: the Council for the Preservation of Rural England; the Association for the Preservation of Rural Scotland and the Council for the Preservation of Rural Wales; the Commons, Open Spaces and Footpaths Preservation Society; the Ramblers' Association; the Society for the Protection of Ancient Buildings; the Pilgrim Trust and the Historic Churches Preservation Trust. The National Trust for England, Wales and Northern Ireland, which was founded in 1895 and now has some 159,000 members, is (apart from the Crown and the Government) the largest land-owner in the United Kingdom. It owns and protects from harmful development 400,000 acres of land and some 190 historic buildings and gardens for the benefit of the public, often acquired through gifts (sometimes by arrangement with the Treasury in lieu of death duties). It is at present engaged on a £2 million campaign, *Enterprise Neptune*, to preserve 900 miles of coastline.

There is also a National Trust for Scotland, an independent body founded in 1931, which has about 27,000 members and has under its care over 60 properties, covering in all over 79,000 acres.

The Civic Trust, financed through covenants from leading industrial firms, was founded in 1957 to encourage high quality in architecture and

¹This responsibility is to be transferred to the Ministry of Housing and Local Government in July 1966.

planning and to stimulate public interest in the protection of beauty in town and country. It has, for example, produced plans for the redevelopment of town centres and for a recreational area in the Lea Valley. The trust makes use of local initiative; it has separate sections in the north-east, north-west and Wales and advises some 550 local civic societies.

Nature Conservation

The responsibility for nature conservation rests with the Nature Conservancy, which is a committee of the Natural Environment Research Council. The council derives its powers in this field from its royal charter and the National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act 1949, as amended by the Science and Technology Act 1965. The object of conservation is to influence soils, water, vegetation and animal life by means of research, experiment and control.

The Nature Conservancy is responsible for 113 nature reserves in Great Britain, covering 235,500 acres, of which over 58,800 acres comprise the Cairngorms, the largest reserve in Britain and one of the largest in Europe. Nine other areas (mostly in the north) are managed by local authorities, using their powers under the National Parks Act, in consultation with the Conservancy.

Twelve forest nature reserves have also been set up; of these eight have been created by agreement between the Forestry Commission and the Nature Conservancy and consist of forest land managed under joint supervision.

The Council for Nature (established in 1958) is a foundation of some 440 natural history and conservation societies concerned with threats to wild life in Britain. It receives grants from the Department of Education and Science, the British Broadcasting Corporation and the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust.

National Parks and Access to the Countryside

The National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act 1949 provided that selected areas of beautiful country in England and Wales should become national parks, where the characteristic landscape would be safeguarded and facilities for open-air recreation provided or improved.

A National Parks Commission was set up by the Act and its work has resulted in the establishment of ten national parks: the Peak District, the Lake District, Snowdonia, Dartmoor, the Pembrokeshire coast, the North York Moors, the Yorkshire Dales, Exmoor, Northumberland and the Brecon Beacons. These parks cover a total area of 5,254 square miles, almost one-eleventh of the area of England and Wales. They have various forms of administration, based on representation of the local planning authorities of the areas in which they are situated, as well as members nominated by the Minister of Housing and Local Government or by the Secretary of State for Wales.

The commission also has power to designate other areas in England and Wales as 'areas of outstanding natural beauty'. By 1966, 20 such areas had been designated covering more than 3,000 square miles.



Civic buildings in the centre of Harlow, Essex, one of Britain's new towns. More than twenty new towns have been, or are being, built.



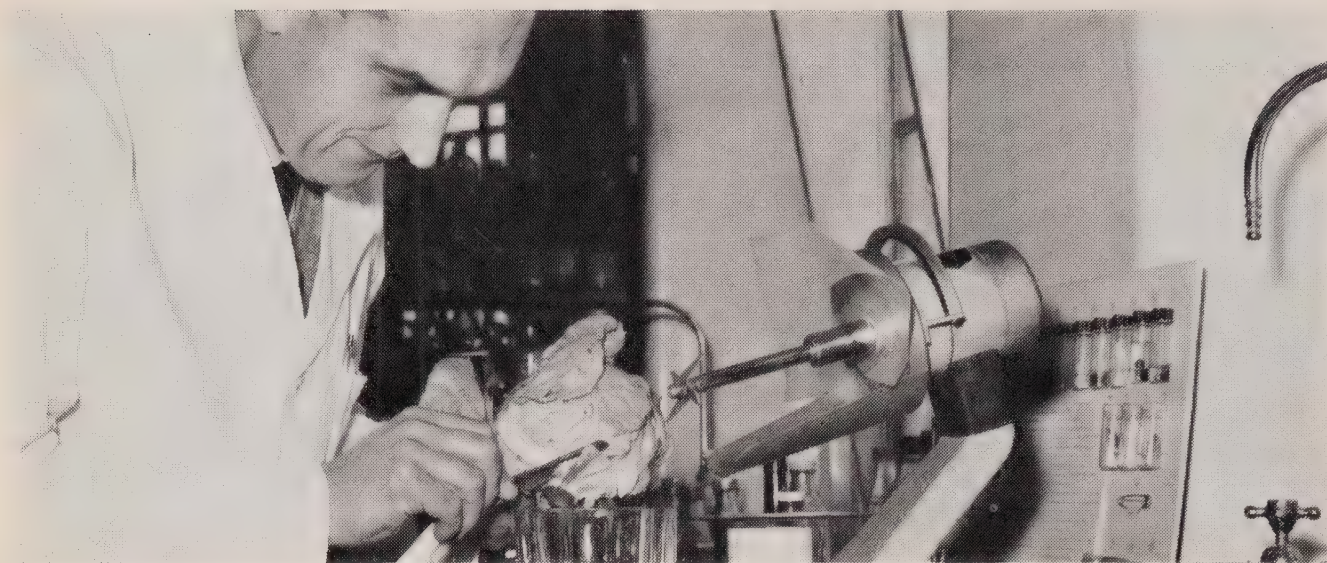
Blocks of flats in a residential development scheme in Glasgow, Scotland, where large-scale rebuilding is in progress.



Prefabricated houses at Cramlington, Northumberland. Industrialised methods have the advantage of rapid construction and need fewer skilled workers.



Bungalows for the elderly in Northern Ireland. Residential homes and special housing help to alleviate the difficulties of old-age.



Examining vegetables for poisonous pesticides. Testing foods is one of the public health services for which local authorities are responsible.



A glass and aluminium chamber within an operating theatre reduces germs a thousand-fold. Over 3,000 hospitals in Britain provide free treatment under the National Health Service.



Wexham Park Hospital, Slough, a new hospital which was completed in 1966 at a cost of £2.6 million. It is proposed to spend £1,000 million on hospital building in England and Wales over the next ten years.



Dental examination of school children at a health centre where general medical practice is combined with maternity, child welfare and school health services.



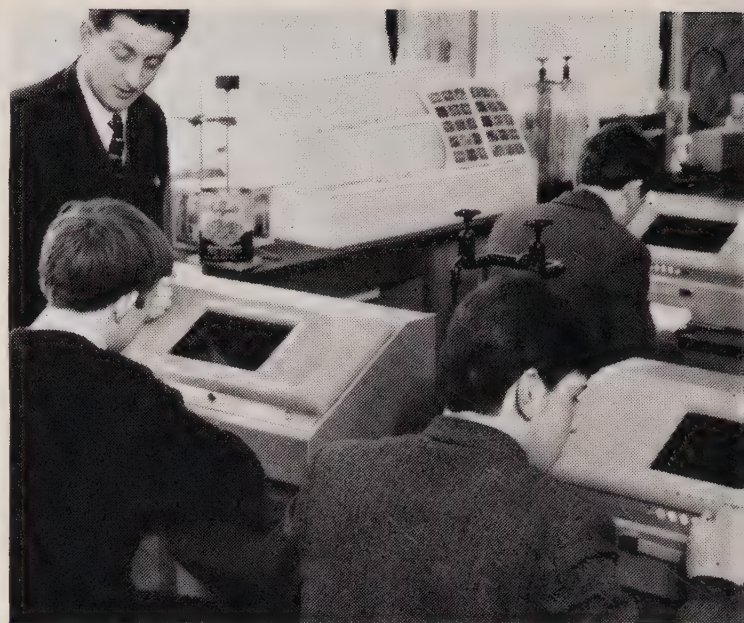
A health visitor weighs a baby at a clinic near Belfast in Northern Ireland.



The midday meal at a day nursery for children under five.



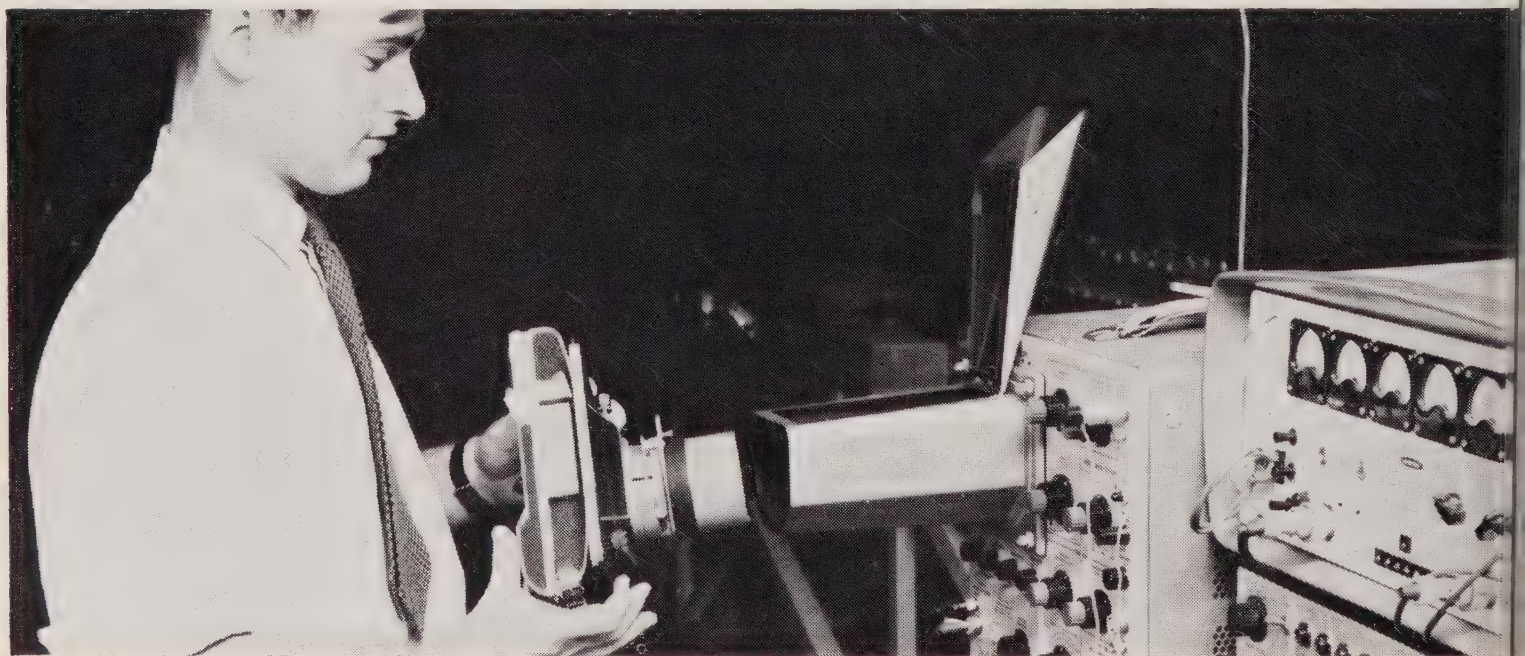
A teaching aid developed by the Royal National Institute for the Deaf in use at Woodford School for Deaf Children in London. Special schools for handicapped children are run by local authorities and by voluntary societies.



Teaching machines in use in a science lesson in secondary school. Each child is able to advance at his own speed.



Sixth-form pupils outside Walworth School, a comprehensive school in south-east London. Secondary education in Great Britain is being reorganised on comprehensive lines.



A research student in the Department of Aeronautics and Space Technology at City University, London (former Northampton College of Advanced Technology).



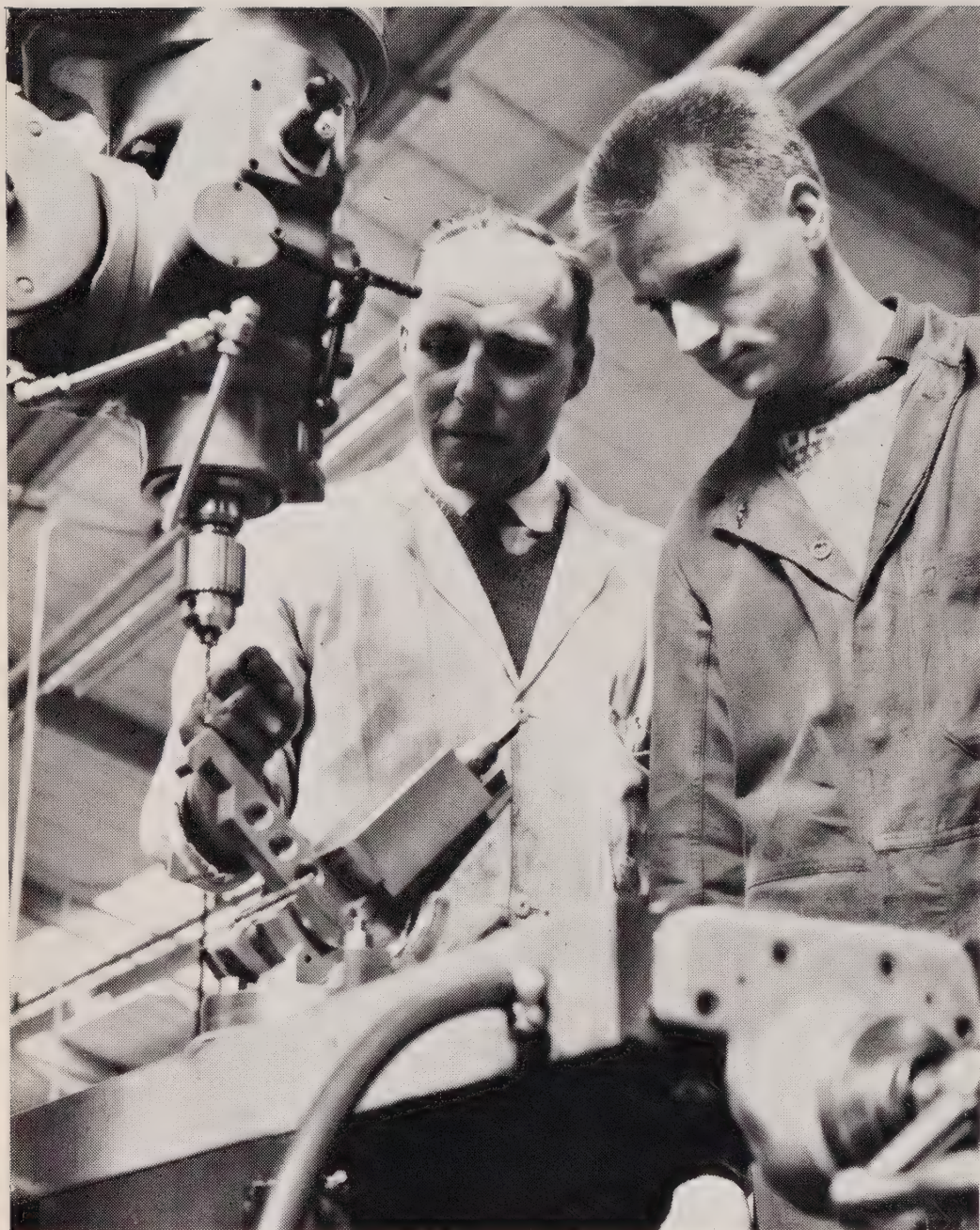
Undergraduates at the University of Kent at Canterbury, one of Britain's new universities.



Students of the forestry department of the University of Wales which is a federation of four colleges and a medical school.



Housewives modelling at a college of further education. A wide range of courses enables people of all ages to study new subjects and acquire new techniques.



Instruction at a government training centre where workers are trained in new skills.



The welfare officer talks to a worker at the plant of Vauxhall Motors. His duties are to assist in any problems which may affect the well-being of employees.



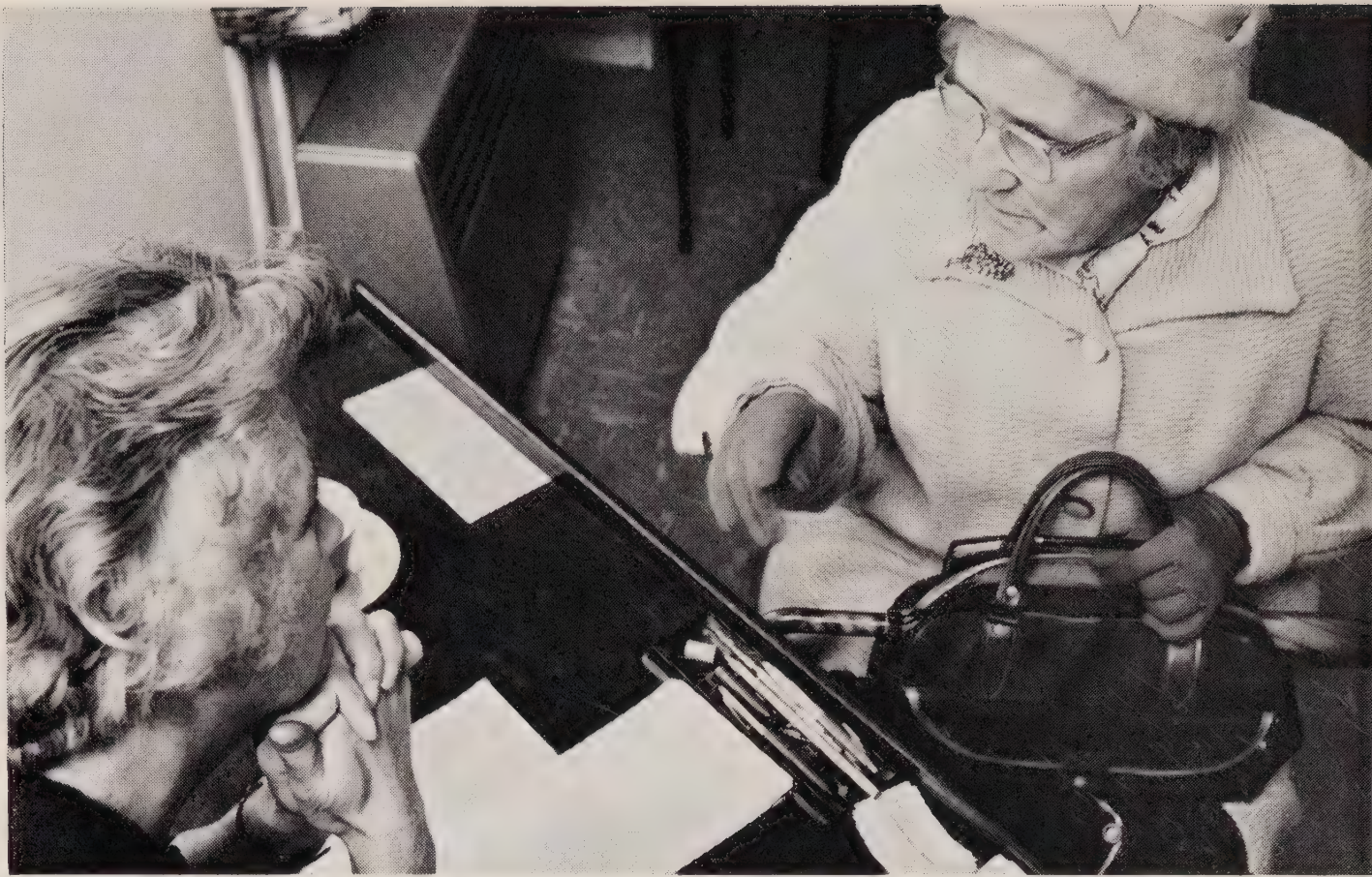
The library at an approved school.



Vocational training in electrical installation at a borstal institution.



Prison officer at Holloway Prison discusses family budgets with a group of women prisoners.



Help is sought at a Citizens' Advice Bureau, one of the 450 bureaux which deal with over a million enquiries each year.



A member of the British Red Cross Society assisted by a cadet attends to a minor injury on the beach.



A motor-cyclist of the Volunteer Emergency Service delivers blood for transfusions to a hospital—one of the services performed by this voluntary organisation which answers urgent calls for help at any time.

The land in these parks and areas remains in private ownership, but agreements or orders to secure additional public access may be made by the local authorities. Steps are taken to preserve and enhance the natural beauty of the landscape by such means as tree planting and the improvement of derelict land, and to promote enjoyment of the area by the public, for example, by the siting of camping and caravan areas and the setting up of information centres.

Responsibility for making proposals for long-distance routes, footpaths or bridleways also rests with the National Parks Commission; once the proposals are approved by the Minister of Housing and Local Government, it falls to the local authorities to give effect to them. Ten routes—in all, nearly 1,300 miles—had been approved by 1966. Large stretches of these paths are already public rights of way; the first long-distance footpath to be completed (the Pennine Way, which stretches for some 250 miles) was opened in 1965. The establishment of further routes is under review.

In a White Paper, *Leisure in the Countryside*,¹ the Government proposes to set up a Countryside Commission to replace and extend the work of the National Parks Commission. It will be concerned with the countryside as a whole and will aim to increase access to areas of natural beauty while preserving and enhancing their scenic value. It will also help to develop facilities for recreation such as the provision of small country parks near urban areas and the use of reservoirs, canals and derelict land for leisure activities.

There are no National Parks in Scotland but five areas have been recommended as such by the Scottish National Parks Survey Committee. They are: Loch Lomond—Trossachs; Glen Affric—Glen Cannich—Strath Farrar; Ben Nevis—Glen Coe—Black Mount; the Cairngorms; and Loch Torridon—Loch Maree—Little Loch Broom. Close supervision is being maintained over development in these areas by means of Scottish National Parks Directions, which require the local planning authorities concerned to refer proposed developments to the Secretary of State for Scotland for consideration.

It is also proposed to set up a Countryside Commission for Scotland to reconcile the needs of preservation and of development, paying especial attention to the importance of the tourist industry there.

Forest Parks

The Forestry Commission has formed, and opened to the public, seven Forest Parks in some of the finest country in Britain: Argyll, Glen Trool, Glen More, and the Queen Elizabeth Forest Park in Scotland; the Forest of Dean and the Wye valley woods on the borders of England and Wales; Snowdonia in Wales; and the Border Forest Park (adjoining the Northumberland National Park to the westward), which includes forests on the borders of Northumberland and Cumberland in England and of Roxburgh in Scotland. The total area of the seven parks approaches half a million acres. Camping facilities are provided in all the parks.

The historic New Forest, in Hampshire, although not a Forest Park, is also open to the public.

¹Cmnd. 2928, HMSO 1966, 1s. 6d.

Planning in Northern Ireland

Under the Planning and Housing Act (Northern Ireland) 1931 local authorities are empowered to prepare planning schemes for their areas in order to secure proper sanitary conditions, amenity and convenience in the laying out and use of the land.

The planning provisions of the 1931 Act are permissive, but the Planning (Interim Development) Act (Northern Ireland) 1944 brought under planning control all land not subject to a scheme under the 1931 Act and empowered local authorities to secure more effective control of development until planning schemes came into operation.

Since 1944 progress has been made by the authorities in the preparation of outline advisory plans. These plans indicate broadly the proposals for their areas and provide a foundation for more detailed plans. They also facilitate the control of development until planning schemes are completed.

Interim development control is exercised in accordance with the 1944 Act, which requires that, where application is made to an authority for permission to develop, the authority may grant the application conditionally or unconditionally or may refuse it altogether. In the event of a refusal or conditional approval, the applicant may appeal to the Ministry of Development for Northern Ireland (the department primarily responsible).

Planning in Northern Ireland has entered a new phase in recent years with the publication of Sir Robert Matthew's *Belfast Regional Survey and Plan*, in April 1964, and the *Report on Economic Development in Northern Ireland*, in February 1965. These reports have led to a greater emphasis on regional planning in Northern Ireland and their general thesis of preserving and enhancing Northern Ireland's physical environment has been accepted by the Government.

The Government and local authorities are co-operating in limiting the growth of the Belfast urban area and plans are being prepared for a new city, Craigavon, linking the two boroughs of Lurgan and Portadown in County Armagh. Plans are also being prepared for the expansion of a number of other key towns including Antrim, Ballymena, Coleraine, Londonderry and Newry. The New Towns Act (Northern Ireland) 1965 provides the machinery for the development of new towns and may also be applied to the expansion of existing ones.

A White Paper, *The Administration of Town and Country Planning in Northern Ireland*, published in 1964, contains proposals for a central planning authority responsible for the over-all planning of Northern Ireland which would work with a number of local development committees in the detailed planning of each area.

Preservation of Amenities

The Amenity Lands Act (Northern Ireland) 1965 enables the Ministry of Development to acquire or control areas of natural beauty or amenity; to designate national parks; to create nature reserves; to provide facilities for visitors to such areas; to put areas of outstanding natural beauty or of scientific interest under a special form of planning control; and to secure the clearing of derelict sites in rural areas. The Ministry of Finance has responsibility for the preservation of ancient monuments and historic buildings.

Industrial Development

The Ministry of Development co-operates with the Ministry of Commerce in the selection of industrial sites in order to secure the best possible use of the land and to facilitate the efficient provision of housing and other services, especially communications, in connection with industrial development.

Northern Ireland Forest Park

Northern Ireland's first forest park at Tollymore Park, Newcastle, County Down, was opened to the public in 1955. Situated at the foot of the Mountains of Mourne, it covers an area of 1,200 acres. It contains an arboretum comprising a wide variety of native and exotic trees, and an exhibition of natural history, and is rich in mountain, river and parkland scenery. Caravan facilities and a camping site for youth organisations are available.

HOUSING

There are some 18 million dwellings in Britain: 15,800,000 in England and Wales, 1,700,000 in Scotland and over 400,000 in Northern Ireland. Over one house in four is owned by public authorities (in Scotland the figure is almost one in two), more than one in three are in owner-occupation and most of the remainder (mainly older houses) are rented from private landlords.

Between 1945 and March 1966 about 5½ million new houses and flats were built; one family in four now lives in a post-war dwelling. Most of the new dwellings in Britain are houses (usually of two storeys); the remainder are flats or maisonettes, mostly in blocks of from 2 to 20 storeys, although a few blocks may be higher. High blocks are generally built in central urban areas where they replace old, overcrowded dwellings. In the new towns and on new housing estates they provide focal points and help planners to achieve higher densities of population per acre, where desirable, while still providing open spaces.

Accommodation in a house designed for a family of four or five people includes one or two living rooms, a kitchen, a store, a bathroom and a water closet and two or three bedrooms. A typical three-bedroom house built by a local authority in England and Wales in 1965 had a superficial area of about 930 square feet and cost £2,579 to build.

Responsibility for formulating housing policy and supervising the housing programme is borne by the Minister of Housing and Local Government in England, by the Secretaries of State in Scotland and Wales and the Minister of Development in Northern Ireland. Local authorities are responsible for ensuring that the provision of housing in their areas is adequate. In England and Wales and Northern Ireland the local housing authorities are the councils of county boroughs, boroughs, urban districts and rural districts, the Greater London Council, the London borough councils and the Common Council of the City of London. In Scotland all town and county councils are housing authorities. The actual building of dwellings is undertaken by the local authorities (or by building firms under contract to them) and by private builders, usually for sale to owner-occupiers. In recent years about one-quarter of the dwellings built by local authorities have been for old people.

The Housing Programme

The Government has set a target of building 500,000 dwellings a year in Great Britain by 1970—an increase of 25 per cent over the total of 382,000 built in 1965—half in the public sector¹ and half in the private. Although the number of households and dwellings in Britain are roughly equal they are unevenly distributed and there is a heavy demand for housing in the areas of economic prosperity. There is also a continuing need for accommodation, amounting to some 150,000 dwellings a year, for the growing number of households as the population increases and living standards rise. In addition, it is estimated that about 3 million dwellings are required to replace slums and old houses which lack essential amenities in industrial areas. A further 750,000 or so dwellings are required to overcome shortages and provide a margin for mobility as well as to replace losses due to re-development.

In two White Papers on the housing programme published in 1965, the Government says that the output of new housing in the public sector should be expanded from some 168,000 in 1965 to 250,000 by 1970, primarily to meet the urgent need for low-rented accommodation in large towns. Local authorities are being encouraged to use industrialised methods of building to achieve their target and a new system of subsidies, based on a stable rate of interest, is proposed to reduce their financial burden. The Government has acknowledged the increasing demand for dwellings for owner-occupation and, by agreement with the builders and building societies, aims at the provision of some 250,000 annually by 1970 (compared with 214,000 in 1965) in the private sector.

Land is being made more readily available for housing (see p. 55) and less essential building is controlled (see p. 56).

Standards of Building

Control of building standards is the responsibility of the central departments, which issue manuals of guidance on design and layout for different types of dwellings provided by local authorities. Standards of comfort and convenience in dwellings were studied by the Parker Morris committee,² whose suggestions on space and heating have been recommended by the Government to local authorities and new towns authorities in England and Wales. In Scotland basic housing standards are laid down in the building regulations. For building in the private sector the National House-Builders' Registration Council has been established to set standards and to enforce them by inspection and certification. Some lending agencies make a condition that they will lend money on mortgage (see pp. 65-6) only for dwellings built by house-builders registered with this council or built under professional supervision.

¹In addition to local authorities, this includes new town authorities, the Scottish Special Housing Association, a statutory body established in 1937 to erect houses for letting to supplement building by local authorities (it now owns about 61,000 houses) and the Northern Ireland Housing Trust set up in 1945 for a similar purpose, which has built about a quarter of Northern Ireland's post-war houses.

²*Homes for Today and Tomorrow*, HMSO 1961, 4s.

Housing Finance

Local Authority Building Costs, Rents and Subsidies

The initial capital cost of houses built by or for local authorities is met by raising loans; current expenditure, including loan repayment and interest on loans, is met from rents supplemented by subsidies from the Exchequer and, in many cases, from the rates. Local authorities may raise loans for housing either in the open market or by borrowing from the Public Works Loan Board. In Northern Ireland local authorities, the Housing Trust and housing associations may borrow from the Government Loans Fund.

In selecting tenants for council dwellings local authorities give preference to families living in overcrowded or unsatisfactory conditions. Rents are low in comparison with current building costs, with the result that most authorities have a deficit on their housing account that is made good from other income. In order to avoid subsidising council-house tenants who can afford to pay an economic rent, about two-fifths of the councils in England and Wales operate rent-rebate schemes, under which the general level of rents is high enough to cover housing costs, and rebates are given to tenants with low incomes. In Scotland over one-third of councils operate rebate schemes, although rents generally are lower. The Government is encouraging the expansion of such schemes and intends its proposed increased subsidies (see below) to be used to provide housing for people with the greatest need at rents they can afford.

Housing subsidies, at varying rates and for varying purposes, have been provided in Britain since 1919, when they were first introduced to facilitate the building of houses by local authorities for letting at moderate rents. In recent years various systems of subsidy have been introduced under successive Housing Acts but the value of subsidies has gradually been eroded by rising costs and high interest charges (which account for a very substantial part of each authority's annual costs on new housing). The Government has announced proposals for a basic subsidy calculated to produce the same effect on a local authority's housing account as if the loan raised to finance the construction of a dwelling (including land and site costs) bore interest at 4 per cent a year. This subsidy will vary, therefore, with the capital cost of completed houses and with the prevailing rate of interest and could amount to £60-£80. Supplementary subsidies would be paid for high flats, expensive sites, precautions against subsidence, building in certain materials and for overspill. These subsidies would also be available in Scotland. In Northern Ireland annual subsidies are paid to local authorities, the Northern Ireland Housing Trust and housing associations and 'lump-sum' subsidies are paid to private people who build dwellings for letting or owner-occupation.

Private Purchase

Loans to enable people to buy their houses by a system of instalment purchase are available from various sources, including building societies, insurance companies, industrial and provident societies and local authorities (who confine their loans to people in special need).

Building societies, of which there are about 730, are the most important of these agencies. They do not build houses themselves but provide long-term loans on the security of property bought for owner-occupation. Most societies

are now prepared to make advances of up to 95 per cent of the value of the houses. Loans are usually repayable over periods of up to 25 or even 30 years, by equal monthly instalments to cover capital and interest. The societies' funds are derived mainly from investment of relatively modest sums by the general public.

Many local authorities operate a scheme whereby, for a house costing up to £2,500, they guarantee part of the loan made by a building society so that an advance greater than normal may be made to the purchaser. The Exchequer undertakes to share any liability local authorities may incur under this scheme.

A scheme to reduce the rate of interest on loans for house purchase is under consideration by the Government, in order to facilitate home ownership.

Housing Corporation

The Housing Act 1961 authorised Exchequer loans to approved non-profit-making housing associations for the building of houses to let at unsubsidised rents. This provision was increased and extended by the Housing Act 1964 under which a Housing Corporation was set up to stimulate the formation of housing societies. Building societies advance to a housing society two-thirds of the cost of each approved housing scheme, the corporation providing the remaining third. The housing societies build dwellings either to let at unsubsidised rents or for co-ownership by a group of occupants. Co-ownership gives the occupants most of the advantages of house ownership at a lower cost. The corporation also has power to buy land for the housing societies.

Improvement Grants and Loans

Private owners in England and Wales can obtain Exchequer assistance for the improvement of houses or conversion of large houses or other buildings for housing. Cash grants may be made by local authorities, with Exchequer assistance, to people converting or improving existing buildings for housing at a cost of over £100 per dwelling. The grants may amount to half the cost, with a maximum grant of £400 for each dwelling or £500 if a house of three or more storeys is converted.

Local authorities are obliged to make 'standard grants' for the provision in houses built before 1945 of a bath, wash basin, water closet, hot-water supply and food store; these cash grants cover half the cost of the work, subject, normally, to a maximum grant of £350, or smaller sums if some of the five items already exist. Grant for the provision of the last three facilities may be made where further improvement is not practicable. Grants for improvements to houses owned by local authorities are available from the Exchequer but on an annual basis over 20 years. The Acts under which these improvement grants are available are the Housing (Financial Provisions) Act 1958, the House Purchase and Housing Act 1959, and the Housing Acts 1961 and 1964. From 1949 to March 1966 995,500 grants had been over made.

Improvement grants and standard grants are also provided in Scotland and Northern Ireland with additional provision for accommodation for farmers and approved workers.

Local authorities also have power to make loans under the Housing Acts for the acquisition, conversion, improvement, repair and alteration of houses. Under the House Purchase and Housing Act 1959 they may make loans of up to 100 per cent of the house's value.

Control of Rents

Rent control, originally introduced in 1915 and intended as a temporary war-time measure, was retained by successive Acts and still applies to many privately rented unfurnished houses let before 1957. Under the Rent Act 1965 a new system of rent regulation was introduced to cover all other privately rented unfurnished property of annual rateable value not exceeding £400 in London and £200 elsewhere. Rents are determined by locally appointed rent officers or, failing agreement between the officer, landlord and tenant, by independent rent assessment committees appointed by the Minister concerned. Once determined, the rent is not normally reviewed for at least three years. For furnished premises under the rateable value limits a tenant may go to a rent tribunal for determination of a reasonable rent and may be given security of tenure for up to six months with a possibility of a further period if the tribunal so decides. Eviction without a court order from furnished or unfurnished premises of any rateable value is unlawful and harassment of occupiers is a criminal offence with severe penalties.

Measures of control and de-control also apply in Northern Ireland. In 1951 legislation was passed which permitted prescribed increases in the rent of controlled houses, provided that they were maintained in good repair; and the Housing (Miscellaneous Provisions) and Rent Restriction Law (Amendment) Act (Northern Ireland) 1956 permitted an increase of one-third in the rent levels fixed by the 1951 Act where the landlord had recently incurred expenditure of a certain amount on repairs. The 1956 Act also released from control houses with a net annual value of over £50 (with certain safeguards) and houses with a net annual value of over £26 of which the landlord was in actual possession when the Act came into force, or of which he subsequently obtained possession.

Slum Clearance

About 2 million people have been rehoused since the mid-1950s as a result of slum clearance programmes. It is expected that in about ten years' time the great majority of the housing authorities in Great Britain will have succeeded in getting rid of all their present slums. In certain areas, however, particularly the older industrial towns, including Birmingham, Liverpool and Manchester, three of the biggest cities in the country, the proportion of unfit houses is so high that clearance may take much longer. Local authorities in these areas are being given special help by the central departments to clear their slums and to undertake major programmes of urban renewal. Their housing programmes for the next few years have been doubled or trebled compared with recent years and the Ministers are making more building land available to them by the designation of new towns nearby.

Housing authorities are obliged to see that other accommodation exists,

or can be provided by them, for people displaced from slum clearance areas. Where an unfit house is demolished by order of the local authority and the owner retains his land, he normally receives no compensation but compensation is paid if the local authorities acquire an unfit property in order to demolish it themselves and to rebuild on the land.

EMPLOYMENT¹

THE STATE has a triple role in the sphere of employment. It is responsible for protective legislation, supports the voluntary system of industrial relations, and provides government training and employment services. The Ministry of Labour is ultimately responsible for these functions in Great Britain, and the Ministry of Health and Social Services in Northern Ireland.

WORKING CONDITIONS

Safety

Employers have a duty at common law to take reasonable care of their employees and provide a safe system of working, while employees have a duty of care towards each other. In addition, minimum required standards of safety in certain kinds of workplaces or work are laid under a number of statutes, some of which also deal with health and welfare. The statutes include: the Mines and Quarries Act 1954; the Agriculture (Safety, Health and Welfare Provisions) Act 1956; the Factories Act 1961 (which consolidates earlier Acts); and the Offices, Shops and Railway Premises Act 1963, which closely follows the Factories Act 1961.

The provisions of these Acts are enforced by various authorities including the Mines and Quarries Inspectorate (which forms part of the Ministry of Power), the Inspectorates of the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food and the Department of Agriculture and Fisheries for Scotland; the Inspectorate of Factories (which forms part of the Ministry of Labour) and local and fire authorities. Safety legislation covering the main forms of transport protects transport workers, as well as members of the public, against accidents involving moving vehicles. The Government encourages voluntary activities to promote safety at work through such organisations as the Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents and through bodies representative of particular industries.

Health and Welfare at Work

Local authorities, under the Public Health Acts, have power to regulate the provision of suitable sanitary accommodation in houses and at places of work and to treat workplaces which are dirty or badly ventilated or overcrowded as nuisances, the abatement of which can be enforced. They are also responsible under the Shops Act 1950 for seeing that shops in their area observe the requirements of the Act, which include a number of provisions relating to closing hours and to hours of work of young employees.

Factories, other industrial premises, offices, shops and railway premises must comply with the health and welfare requirements of the Factories Act or the Offices, Shops and Railway Premises Act. These include: with regard to health, the cleanliness of premises, adequate ventilation and suitable temperature and lighting, the avoidance of overcrowding and the provision of sanitary accommodation, and the protection of workers against inhaling harmful dust or fumes; with regard to welfare, the provision of washing facilities, lockers or other accommodation for outdoor clothing,

¹For fuller information see COI reference pamphlet R.F.P. 5120 *Labour Relations and Conditions of Work in Britain*, and COI reference paper R.5617 *Government Employment and Training Services in Britain*.

drinking water, first aid, and adequate seating arrangements. On starting work in factories and docks, or on building operations, all young people under 18 years of age must be medically examined by doctors appointed by the Chief Inspector of Factories and known as Appointed Factory Doctors, and they must be re-examined annually until they reach the age of 18. Boys employed in jobs involving night work are examined more frequently.

The general requirements of the Factories Act in regard to health and welfare are supplemented by regulations. They may include provision for compulsory periodic medical examinations. The Offices, Shops and Railway Premises Act is also supplemented by regulations.

The laws restricting the employment of children, young persons and women form an important part of legislation to protect the health and welfare of employees. National legislation, besides forbidding any employment of children under 13 years of age, forbids the employment of children under the statutory minimum school-leaving age (at present 15) in any industrial undertaking; of women and young people underground in mines and in certain other dangerous occupations (for example, those involving work with lead compounds); and of women in factories and workshops within one month of childbirth. It also limits and defines the permissible hours for children aged 13 and for young people under 18 and for women in a number of industries and occupations. Local authorities, moreover, have wide powers under the Children and Young Persons Acts 1933–63, as well as the Education Acts 1944–48, which regulate hours and conditions of employment of children under 15 years in their areas within the limits of national legislation.

The above are the main legislative provisions for health and welfare at work, but employers frequently achieve health and welfare standards considerably higher than those prescribed by law. They are helped to do this by the inspectorates, by government departments and agencies, by employers' associations and trade unions and by expert voluntary bodies.

Industrial Health Services

In addition to the statutory requirements of the Factories Act 1961, and of the Offices, Shops and Railway Premises Act 1963, a number of employers voluntarily maintain medical services for their employees. In premises under the Factories Act it is estimated that there are about 340 factories with full-time and about 4,700 with part-time doctors employed, and several thousand have nurses and assistant nurses. Compulsory medical examinations under the Factories Acts are carried out by some 2,300 part-time Appointed Factory Doctors.

The big employers, including the State and the boards of nationalised industries, have naturally taken the lead in this matter. A number of smaller factories also provide medical services and in a few cases have joined together in group medical services.

Industrial hygiene services can give valuable assistance in securing healthy working conditions in industry; there are at present two centres in Great Britain which undertake studies of factory conditions and increasing use is being made of their facilities. They are staffed and equipped to make com-

prehensive investigations of particular problems or health risks and also carry out routine physical, chemical and biological tests for industry.

Welfare

Welfare standards vary considerably from one firm to another. The amenities provided by large factories or offices depend partly on the employees' needs and desires. The requirements of a factory, or office or shop where the work is light, and where many employees are women or young people, are different from those of an iron foundry or steelworks, where much of the work is arduous and is undertaken by men. Progressive firms are careful to find out what their employees want, and welfare policy is often decided in consultation with the workers, through regular consultative machinery or by other means. An increasing number of firms in Britain pay part or all of the cost of clubs and sports grounds, operate retirement and sickness insurance schemes supplementing the State schemes, and afford training and educational facilities. Some have their own rehabilitation centres or support convalescent homes.

Safety, Health and Welfare in Northern Ireland

The safety, health and welfare of employees in Northern Ireland have been the subject of legislation which, with certain exceptions, is similar to that in Great Britain and is embodied in separate statutes to meet the special requirements of Northern Ireland.

Pay

Minimum or standard time-rates for most British manual workers, as determined by agreements or by statutory orders, vary between 4s. 3d. and 5s. 9d. an hour for men and between 3s. 0d. and 4s. 6d. for women. Actual earnings are usually higher. Higher rates are sometimes paid, and piece rates, shift rates and overtime rates raise the level of average earnings. The average weekly earnings of manual workers in manufacturing industry and certain non-manufacturing industries covered by the Ministry of Labour's earnings enquiry in the United Kingdom in October 1965 were £19 11s. 9d. a week for men and £9 11s. 11d. a week for women.

Women in industry are for the most part engaged on different tasks from men and are paid less than men on the grounds that these tasks are unskilled or semi-skilled. In the relatively few instances in the field of manual employment where men and women are employed on precisely the same work and under identical conditions, collective agreements provide for equal pay.

The starting salaries in many professional and technical careers are often in the range of £600 to £800 a year, though they may be lower for trainees starting work in their teens and higher for some graduates entering industry and the Civil Service. Such posts offer incremental progression to higher salaries and opportunities for promotion.

Statistics published by the Board of Inland Revenue indicate that in 1963-64 some 26 per cent of male wage and salary earners earned £1,000 a year or more, 6 per cent £1,500 a year or more, 2.7 per cent £2,000 a year or more and 0.9 per cent £3,000 a year or more. For women in the same wage or salary ranges, the corresponding percentages were 4.7, 1.1, 0.3 and 0.09.

Women have the same right of entry as men to nearly all public offices, administrative posts and professions. They are paid the same salary for doing the same work in medicine, dentistry, physiotherapy, radiography, university teaching, journalism, broadcasting and architecture, and as Ministers of the Crown, Members of Parliament, salaried magistrates and solicitors, pharmacists working in hospitals, and administrative, professional and technical workers in local government. Women in independent professions are not expected to charge lower fees than men. In many other non-manual occupations, however, women are still paid lower salaries than are men engaged in comparable work.

Hours of Work

National legislation in the United Kingdom embodies a general prohibition of employment of children under 13 years of age; forbids the employment of older children and women in certain occupations; and limits and defines permissible hours of work for women and young persons in a number of industries or trades. Children aged 13 to 15 may not be employed during school hours or before 6 a.m. or after 8 p.m. on any day, or for more than two hours on school days or Sundays. This part-time employment is regulated in various ways by statute and by by-laws made by local authorities.

While the hours of work of adult men are not, in general, restricted by statute, normal hours of work for both sexes and those of all ages are usually well within the local limits on the hours of women and young persons. Agreed weekly hours, in which substantial reductions have been negotiated in many cases in recent years, lie mainly in the range 40 to 42, and may be worked as either a five-day or a five-and-a-half-day week according to the industry and the rule of the particular establishment. Hours actually worked by men are somewhat longer owing to overtime working.

In October 1965, the number of hours actually worked by manual workers covered by the Ministry of Labour's earnings enquiry averaged 47 for men and 38.7 for women on full-time work.

Holidays with Pay and Bank Holidays

About 10 per cent of manual workers in industries covered by collective agreements or statutory orders are entitled to a paid annual holiday of three weeks and about 20 per cent to between two and three weeks. With a few exceptions, all the remainder are entitled to two weeks' paid annual holiday. In some industries agreements provide for extended holidays related to length of service. Moreover, payment is made for Bank or statutory public holidays, which are as follows: in addition to Good Friday and Christmas Day, there are Bank Holidays in England, Wales, and the Channel Islands on Easter Monday, Whit-Monday, the last Monday in August and the first weekday after Christmas (Boxing Day), and in Scotland on New Year's Day, the first Monday in May, and the first Monday in August. Northern Ireland observes all the English holidays and, in addition, has a holiday on St. Patrick's Day, 17th March, and on 12th July (commemorating the Battle of the Boyne, 1690); Easter Tuesday is also a customary holiday for industry and trade. Many agreements provide that payments should also be made for specially proclaimed holidays.

Job Security

National legislation provides that employers must give minimum periods of notice to employees when their employment is to be terminated and those with at least two years' service are entitled to lump sum payments, financed through a small surcharge on the employers' national insurance contribution (see p. 13), if their jobs come to an end through redundancy. Employers are also required to give their employees written particulars of their main terms of employment.

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

The structure of labour relations in Britain is established mainly on a voluntary basis, and rests on the organisation of employers and workers into employers' organisations and trade unions. These bodies¹ discuss and negotiate terms and conditions of employment and other matters affecting the workpeople at their work. In some industries these negotiations are conducted simply by *ad hoc* meetings, which are held when necessary; in others, permanent joint machinery has been established. Normally collective bargaining settles all questions which are raised, but provision is often made for matters not so settled to be referred to independent arbitration. In certain trades where wages cannot be effectively controlled by voluntary agreement owing to the inadequate organisation of employers or workers, provision has also been made for statutory regulation under the Wages Councils Act 1959, the Agricultural Wages Act 1948, and the Agricultural Wages (Scotland) Act 1949.

The central organ of employers' organisations is the Confederation of British Industry (CBI), constituted by Royal Charter in 1965. It was formed by the amalgamation of three existing employers' bodies, of which one, the British Employers' Confederation (BEC), formerly specialised in labour questions. Its membership includes 13,000 individual firms and over 50 employers' organisations. The CBI deals with matters affecting the interests of organised employers and their relations with their employees and is recognised by the Government as a channel for consultation between government departments and representatives of private employers as a whole.

In Britain the national centre of the trade union movement is the Trades Union Congress (TUC). Most trade unions of any size and importance are affiliated to it. Its membership comprises 174 organisations, of which about a dozen are federations of some 150 separate unions; about 350 unions in all representing some 8.5 million workpeople are affiliated directly or indirectly. The TUC deals with all general questions which concern trade unions both nationally and internationally and gives assistance on questions relating to particular trades or industries at the request of the trade union concerned.

Voluntary Joint Negotiating Machinery

In most of the main industries there are at national level joint bodies composed of representatives of employers and trade unions. There are about

¹Some employers, including the central Government and the public corporations operating the nationalised industries, negotiate directly with the trade unions representing their different types of employees.

200 such bodies in all. These committees negotiate national agreements covering not only terms and conditions of employment but procedures for negotiation, for dealing with questions as they arise and for the peaceful settlement of disputes.

Matters which prove difficult to settle by negotiation are sometimes referred by agreement to independent conciliators who may be Industrial Relations Officers of the Ministry of Labour. Disputes which cannot be settled through conciliation may, at the request of both parties, be referred through the Ministry of Labour to voluntary arbitration, either by a single arbitrator, or an *ad hoc* Board of Arbitration, or by the Industrial Court, a permanent tribunal established under the Industrial Courts Act 1919; parties may, however, arrange their own private arbitrations if they prefer. The Minister must refer to the Industrial Court a complaint, not in the meantime settled, that a particular employer is not observing recognised (agreed or awarded) terms or conditions of employment in his trade or industry, provided the workers concerned do not have rates of remuneration fixed by a Wages Regulation Order under the Wages Council Act 1959. The Minister is also empowered to appoint a Court of Inquiry or Committee of Investigation into a dispute, whether existing or apprehended. These proceedings are primarily means of informing public opinion of the facts of a dispute and are not means of arbitration. Recommendations contained in the reports of such bodies often provide the basis for further negotiations which lead to a settlement.

Northern Ireland

The system of labour relations in Northern Ireland is based on the same principles as that of Great Britain and, in these matters, the Minister of Health and Social Services has powers and duties broadly similar to those of the Minister of Labour in Great Britain. About 90 per cent of trade unionists in Northern Ireland are members of trade unions whose headquarters are in Great Britain.

HUMAN RELATIONS IN INDUSTRY

Personnel Management

In recent years there has been a marked increase of interest in manpower problems and in the efficient management of labour. Industry's attitudes have been influenced by labour shortages, particularly of skilled workers, by the increasing pressure of technological change and by increased legislation in the industrial field. All these influences have led to more widespread interest in most aspects of personnel management.

Joint Consultation

The co-operation of workpeople is seen to be vital; it is now more widely realised how largely this depends upon their understanding and acceptance of the aims and plans of management, which therefore need to be carefully conceived and jointly discussed. For this reason attention has been focused on means of conveying information to workers. Methods used include notice boards, news sheets, house journals and discussions or lectures. In addition the importance of improved communications along the normal

chain of responsibility to the workshop has been accentuated. In this important field of communications the establishment of means for joint consultation such as those provided by a works council has been stressed.

The Government has assisted these developments by advice on techniques, by the supply of publicity material, and by encouraging and promoting joint consultation and improved communications.

GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING SERVICES

The provision of employment services in Great Britain has been one of the principal functions of the Ministry of Labour since its inception. The scope of the services has gradually been extended to include the provision of advice on employment and, in suitable cases, of vocational training. The Employment and Training Act 1948 provided a permanent legislative basis for these wider services.

Northern Ireland has its own legislation in these matters which embodies the main principles of the corresponding legislation in Great Britain. The responsible department is the Ministry of Health and Social Services. The following account of services in Great Britain applies in general to Northern Ireland except where otherwise stated.

The main services are provided through the countrywide network of some 1,000 local offices, which act as employment exchanges. Local employment committees, composed of representatives of employers, workers and other local interests, are attached to certain employment exchanges as advisory bodies. There is an additional service designed to meet the needs of men and women who are qualified or likely to qualify for professional, administrative, managerial, senior executive and technical and scientific posts at home and overseas, including ex-regular officers of the armed forces. This service is operated in Great Britain through the Professional and Executive Register, held at 39 of the larger exchanges.

In view of the increasing number of old people in the population the Ministry of Labour has carried out considerable publicity to persuade employers to consider older men and women for employment on their merits without regard to their age; employment exchanges have instructions to make special efforts to find employment for older workers.

General Employment Services for Adults

All the offices referred to above accept on their registers both employed and unemployed people seeking employment. Their primary function is to introduce suitable people to employers, thus providing an efficient service to employers and job-seekers and meeting the needs of the national economy. They also provide information and advice about employment matters, which is of particular help to young men and women aged 18 years and over who have not settled in an occupation, and to older people who wish to change their careers.

Training

The main responsibility for vocational training for employment rests on the industries and trades concerned. Under the Industrial Training Act 1964, Industrial Training Boards are being set up to be responsible for the

quantity and quality of training in their respective industries. By the end of April 1966, 13 boards had been established to cover the following industries: engineering; construction; iron and steel; shipbuilding; wool, jute and flax; electricity supply; gas; water supply; ceramics, glass and mineral products; furniture and timber; knitting, lace and net; carpets; and man-made fibres. Boards are appointed by the Minister of Labour after consultation with the organisations concerned and are composed of an equal number of employer and trade union members and a number of educational members. The powers of a board extend to all forms of training and to all occupations in its industry.

A board has two main duties: first, to ensure that sufficient training is provided; second, to publish recommendations on such matters as the nature, content and length of training and also the further education which should be associated with training. A board is also obliged by the Act to impose a periodic levy on employers in its particular industry and has power to make grants to those which provide training of a standard approved by the board; the aim being to secure a more equitable distribution of the cost of training between firms.

The Act also empowers the Minister of Labour to make grants or loans to boards to supplement the funds raised by the levy.

The purpose of the vocational training scheme of the Ministry of Labour is to assist certain classes of people in special need of help to fit themselves for suitable employment and to help to meet the shortages of skilled labour.

Most of the training is provided at government training centres where full-time courses—generally of six months' duration—are available to unskilled people (unemployed or employed), skilled people whose prospects of employment in their existing trade are poor, disabled people and ex-regular members of the armed forces who are in need of vocational training. Training is given in some 40 skilled trades and is free of charge. There are at present 30 centres, situated in the main industrial areas of the country providing some 6,000 training places. Training facilities are being further expanded to a total of 8,000 places in 38 centres which will be capable of producing some 15,000 trained men a year. Tax-free allowances are paid to trainees, and where necessary an allowance is made for lodging and travelling expenses. Just over 8,500 people were trained under the scheme in 1965 and over 90 per cent of them were subsequently employed in the trade in which they had been trained.

Training may be arranged for the disabled, ex-regular members of the armed forces and unemployed people with a special resettlement problem, at technical or commercial colleges in a variety of subjects, for example, shorthand and typing and commercial subjects not available at government training centres, or with an employer.

There are four residential training centres for the disabled where training in a variety of trades is provided for those more severely handicapped or prevented by disability from attending government training centres or from staying in lodgings or hostels. The centres are run by voluntary organisations with assistance from the Ministry of Labour and are staffed and equipped to look after people needing special care. The courses are usually six months' long and may be extended to meet individual circumstances.

Youth Employment Service

The Ministry of Labour is also responsible in Great Britain for two specialised employment services: the Youth Employment Service and the Disablement Resettlement Service.

The purpose of the Youth Employment Service is to help young people at the stage of transition from school to work, up to the age of 18 years, or until they leave school if they stay beyond that age.

The service is under the general direction of the Central Youth Employment Executive, staffed by officers of the Ministry of Labour, the Department of Education and Science and the Scottish Education Department. This joint executive is appointed by the Minister of Labour, who is responsible to Parliament for the Youth Employment Service as a whole. The Minister has appointed a National Youth Employment Council and separate advisory committees for Scotland and Wales to advise him.

Locally the service is operated in most areas through Youth Employment Offices established by local education authorities (in Scotland by education authorities) in accordance with schemes submitted by them to the Minister of Labour and approved by him. In those areas where such schemes are not in operation, the service is carried out by the local office of the Ministry of Labour. Local Youth Employment Committees, made up of teachers, employers, workers and others with special interest in young people, assist in an advisory capacity.

The main functions of the service are to collect and disseminate information on careers, provide talks in schools and assist teachers with other careers projects, give vocational guidance, help young people to find suitable employment and keep in contact with them, to review their progress and help them to settle down. The service also keeps in touch with employers, both to assist them in finding suitable young workers and also to keep itself informed about local working conditions, training opportunities and prospects.

In Northern Ireland the functions of the youth employment service are similar to those in Great Britain. It is administered by a statutory board composed of representatives appointed by the education committees of the counties and county boroughs, and persons appointed by the Minister of Education to represent the governors of voluntary grammar schools, teachers, employers, workers, the universities and colleges, youth organisations and the Churches' Industrial Council. There are also local youth employment committees, as in Great Britain.

Disablement Resettlement Services

The purpose of the Disabled Persons (Employment) Acts 1944 and 1958 is to make further and better provision for enabling those handicapped by disablement to secure employment or work on their own account and the Disablement Resettlement Service for which the Ministry of Labour is responsible is designed to help the disabled to get and keep suitable work. The service is available to all substantially handicapped people over the statutory school leaving age.

The Disabled Persons (Employment) Act 1944, which provided for the appointment of disablement resettlement officers, also makes provision for courses of industrial rehabilitation and vocational training for those who

need them. It imposed an obligation on all employers of 20 or more people to employ a quota of registered disabled people (at present 3 per cent for all industries except shipping) and authorised the Minister to designate certain jobs in which only registered disabled persons may be employed (at present these are car park attendants and passenger electric lift attendants).

Registration as a disabled person is voluntary. The number registered in April 1966 was 654,483. In January 1966 some 48,000 registered disabled were unemployed of whom almost 6,900 persons were regarded as suitable for work under sheltered conditions.

At each of the Ministry's local offices there is a disablement resettlement officer (DRO) who keeps in touch with employers and all the hospitals in his area and has the duty of advising and helping disabled persons to obtain suitable employment. His work involves close co-operation with members of the medical profession, medical and psychiatric social workers, local authorities and voluntary welfare agencies. There is also a DRO at each of the Ministry's industrial rehabilitation units.

The help given by the service includes:

1. *Vocational guidance* which is given at local offices by DROs in consultation with hospital resettlement clinics, medical interviewing committees and disablement advisory committees and also by occupational psychologists in the industrial rehabilitation units (see below).
2. *Placing in ordinary employment*: Having regard to a disabled person's qualifications and aptitude and to medical guidance, the disablement resettlement officer tries to find the work most suited to each person, either immediately or after a course of industrial rehabilitation or vocational training.
3. *Industrial Rehabilitation*: The object of industrial rehabilitation is to assist people whose medical treatment is completed to adjust gradually to normal working conditions and give guidance on the best form of resettlement in industry. The courses are also available to certain able-bodied people who have difficulty in obtaining suitable employment. Applications are made through the local offices of the Ministry of Labour.

It is expected that the 17 industrial rehabilitation units run by the Ministry of Labour will increase to 21 in 1967. In addition the Ministry of Labour gives financial assistance to two centres for the blind, and, experimentally, to two units for the mentally disabled all of which are run by voluntary organisations.

People undergoing rehabilitation or training receive allowances which vary according to age and domestic circumstances and whether they are living at home during the course or in lodgings or other accommodation. The rates are in most cases higher than the corresponding rate of National Insurance sickness and unemployment benefit.

4. *Sheltered Employment*: Work under sheltered conditions is provided for severely disabled people who, although capable of employment, are unable to compete with other workers under ordinary industrial conditions. Remploy Ltd., a non-profit-making company set up and financed by the Ministry of Labour, operates 88 factories employing nearly 7,000 severely disabled people, including about 150 home-workers.

The Ministry of Labour also gives financial help to local authorities and voluntary organisations who provide sheltered employment under approved schemes for the severely disabled, including the blind. In December 1965 nearly 5,800 severely disabled people, including blind, were covered by such schemes. A further 950 blind people were working at home under home-working schemes. Early in 1964 the Ministry set up a non-profit-making company, Industrial Advisers to the Blind Ltd., to advise on the modernisation of workshops for the blind.

A new comprehensive placing service for blind people in industrial employment began in 1963 when the Ministry of Labour took over the duties previously carried out by voluntary organisations and local authorities. At that time there were about 6,500 blind people working in open industry.

TREATMENT OF OFFENDERS¹

THE CHIEF aims of the penal systems of the United Kingdom are to deter the potential law-breaker and to reform the convicted offender. The element of deterrence is intended to lie in the fear of detection, public trial, and possibility of punishment rather than in the severity of the punishment itself.

Administrative Authorities

In England and Wales the Home Secretary is the Minister generally responsible for legislation relating to the treatment of offenders, for collecting statistical and other information about the operation of the penal system, for reviewing the various methods of treating offenders, and for bringing information about these methods to the attention of the courts. He is specifically responsible for supervising the approved schools, for promoting the efficiency of the probation service, and for providing, maintaining and managing prisons, borstal institutions, and detention, remand and attendance centres. Prison policy is carried out by the prison department of the Home Office through the agency of the prison service which includes all prison officers up through the grade of Governor to the senior officers at headquarters, and members of particular professions, such as medical officers, chaplains and social workers, with their own professional status.

The general supervision of penal institutions is the responsibility of visiting committees or boards of visitors who must be appointed at every prison, borstal institution, detention centre or remand centre, partly to ensure that local interest in the administration of these establishments is preserved and partly to provide some independent and unofficial check on the administration, and particularly on the punishment, of inmates. For each prison to which offenders may be committed directly by a court, a visiting committee of justices of the peace is appointed by the various courts of quarter sessions in the area. For all other prisons and for borstals, detention centres and remand centres a board of visitors is appointed by the Home Secretary.

The penal systems in Scotland and Northern Ireland are based on principles similar to those applied in England and Wales. In Scotland, the system is the responsibility of the Secretary of State for Scotland and in Northern Ireland of the Minister of Home Affairs.

PENALTIES

Except in relation to murder and certain rare offences for which there is a fixed penalty, the court has discretion to select the penalty (within maxima prescribed by law) that it considers most suitable in the light of the circumstances of the offence and the offender. In general, the courts have power to impose either imprisonment or a fine for serious offences (both in certain cases), while most minor offences are punishable by a fine only, with the alternative of imprisonment if the fine is not paid. Moreover, the court has discretion, instead of sentencing an offender, to discharge him absolutely, to place him on probation or (in England, Wales and Northern Ireland only) to discharge him conditionally (that is, subject to the condition

¹For fuller information see COI reference pamphlet RF.P. 4414 *The Treatment of Offenders in Britain*.

that he commits no offence during a specified period not exceeding 12 months). Summary courts, when they consider sentencing a first offender to imprisonment, must be satisfied that no other method of dealing with him is appropriate. Special sentences of somewhat longer duration than normal may be imposed on persistent offenders.

In England and Wales no offender under the age of 17 may be sentenced to imprisonment. Offenders aged 17 and under 21 are not sentenced to imprisonment for any period between six months and three years (unless they are persistent offenders, when a sentence of 18 months or more may be passed). In Scotland no offender under 21 may be detained in a prison. Methods of dealing with young offenders are described on pp. 84–8.

The automatic penalty for murder in Great Britain is imprisonment for life¹—this sentence being also the maximum sentence that may be imposed for a number of other serious offences. Anyone subject to such a sentence is liable to be detained for the rest of his life, but the Home Secretary (or the Secretary of State for Scotland) may if he thinks fit, release such a prisoner on licence at any time, subject to the proviso, in murder cases, that the sentencing court may recommend a minimum period of detention and that the Ministers should, before granting a licence, consult the Lord Chief Justice in England and the Lord Justice General in Scotland (as the case may be) and, if possible, the judge who presided at the trial. The period of detention varies according to the circumstance of the particular case and the question of whether the prisoner's release would be likely to involve risk to the public.

In Northern Ireland, the Criminal Justice (Northern Ireland) Bill proposes to abolish the death penalty except for two categories of capital murder: murder of a constable or other person in the service of the Crown in the course of duty; and murder done in the course of furtherance of any seditious conspiracy or of the activities of an unlawful organisation.

PRISONS

The Prison Rules state that 'the purpose of the training and treatment of convicted prisoners shall be to encourage and assist them to lead a good and useful life'. To this end prisoners in England and Wales are classified into groups, according to their record, character and potentialities, and assigned, so far as circumstances permit, to the establishment best suited to their needs. The separation of male from female prisoners is required by statute; otherwise classification is a matter for administrative direction. Untried prisoners are separated from convicted prisoners and those under 21 are separated from adults. Prisoners serving their first sentence, and those considered suitable to associate with them, are classified as the Star Class and are separated from other prisoners (the Ordinary Class).

The Scottish system of classification of prisoners is broadly the same as that of England and Wales; but each prison in Scotland, except the open prison, accommodates more than one classification group. In Northern Ireland, with its smaller population, the necessity for several kinds of prison to separate the various classes of prisoners does not arise to the same extent.

¹The Act embodying this provision expires on 31st July 1970, unless both Houses of Parliament pass resolutions extending it.

Classification of Prisons

Prisons are classified as general local, special local, regional training, and central. All convicted prisoners are first received at the general local prison for the area, where they are assessed and, in appropriate cases, transferred to another class of prison. Prisoners serving short sentences who are suitable for open conditions are sent to open special prisons. The function of the central prisons is to accommodate all prisoners serving long sentences (a long sentence being defined as over four years for most classes of men prisoners and over three years for women). The function of regional training prisons is to accommodate selected prisoners whose sentence is not long enough to qualify them for a central prison but is long enough (12 months' minimum) for a comprehensive course of training, and who are judged likely to benefit from such a course. All classes of prison include open as well as closed prisons.

Building Programme

To meet the needs for additional accommodation caused by the rise in the prison population and to facilitate the application of modern methods of treatment and training, an extensive programme for the construction of new prisons and the modernisation of existing establishments has been embarked upon. Since 1960, the number of men's prisons in England and Wales has increased from 46 to 55 and a further 11, of which two are in the course of building, are planned.

Privileges and Discipline

On reception under sentence, all prisoners, except those sentenced to imprisonment for life, are credited with remission of one-third of their sentence (one-fourth in Northern Ireland in respect of sentences of less than two years), provided that this does not reduce their sentence below 31 days (in Scotland, 30 days). A life prisoner may be released on licence by the Home Secretary¹ or, in Scotland, by the Secretary of State. All prisoners become entitled to certain personal privileges at successive stages in their sentence.

For breaches of discipline in prison, the prison governor, the visiting committee or the board of visitors have power to order, among other penalties, forfeiture of remission (postponement of eligibility for release) and forfeiture of privileges.

Training

In prison efforts are being made to provide (1) work of a type likely to help fit prisoners to earn their living after release, with technical training in skilled trades for certain persons, (2) suitable educational facilities, and (3) opportunities for the development of a sense of personal responsibility, including (for suitable prisoners) training in open conditions.

Employment

The Government's policy on employment in prisons is based on the

¹Proposals for a system of release on licence for selected prisoners serving long- or medium-term sentences in England and Wales are set out in the White Paper *The Adult Offender*, Cmnd. 2852.

principle laid down by the Advisory Council on the Employment of Prisoners (appointed by the Home Secretary and the Secretary of State for Scotland) that prisoners should be employed for a full working week in production work similar to that found in modern industry and organised on an up-to-date basis. Except in general local prisons in England and Wales, where the hours are shorter, most prisoners are employed for about 40 hours a week in the prison workshops, or in other work such as building, farm work, domestic work and gardening in the prison precincts. A number of prisoners work outside the prisons on various types of (mainly agricultural) work.

In England, Wales, and Scotland, small payments are made to inmates for the work they do, and good work is rewarded by payments above the minimum; in Northern Ireland there is a progressive system of earnings, which is not related to output nor to work done.

Specially selected prisoners, amongst those sentenced to long-term imprisonment, are allowed to take ordinary civilian employment outside prison during the months immediately preceding their discharge. These prisoners, some of whom live in prison hostels, are paid normal wages from which they support their families and meet their own expenses.

Education

Educational arrangements are made in prisons in England, Wales, and Scotland by the local education authorities and in Northern Ireland by the Ministry of Home Affairs. Advice is given by the government departments responsible for education in their respective countries. The local authorities are fully reimbursed for their services which, in England and Wales, consist of supplying a tutor-organiser and most of the teachers. A wide choice of evening classes and correspondence courses is available, and prisoners are encouraged if they show ability to acquire recognised qualifications. Vocational training courses and other educational facilities, such as physical training, concerts, plays, films, lectures and group discussions are arranged separately. Prisoners may also use prison libraries, which largely depend on the local public libraries for their stock.

Medical Services

Medical attention is provided by full-time and part-time medical officers whose duties include not only the care of the physical and mental health of prison inmates but also the oversight of those services which affect health in prisons.

A few prisons and borstals have their own psychiatric clinics (with qualified medical staff, visiting psychotherapists and psychiatric social workers) to which inmates may be transferred where necessary. In England and Wales there is one psychiatric prison, with accommodation for some 350 people, and a prison psychological service, whose officers are employed to assist governors and medical officers in their work of examining and classifying prisoners, and to advise on methods of treatment. The hospital facilities of the National Health Service are also available for the treatment of prisoners in appropriate cases. Arrangements may be made, where necessary, for prisoners to receive treatment after release.

Welfare and After-Care

Welfare in prisons is the general concern of the prison staff as a whole, and in particular of the chaplains and assistant governors, but special responsibilities attach to the resident welfare officers, who are probation officers seconded by the local probation and after-care service. The function of these officers is to help the prisoner in his relationships with individuals and organisations outside the prison, and to concern themselves with making plans for the prisoner's after-care, working closely in this connection with colleagues in the probation and after-care service and with other agencies in the community whose help the prisoner, and his family, may need either during sentence or after release.

While in custody, prisoners may write and receive letters regularly and may be visited by their relatives and friends at specified intervals. They may also receive visits from prison visitors specially appointed for the purpose. The voluntary work of prison visitors in England and Wales is co-ordinated and guided by the National Association of Prison Visitors.

A chaplain of the Church of England (in Scotland, of the Church of Scotland, and in Northern Ireland, of the Church of Ireland and Presbyterian Church), a Roman Catholic priest and a minister of the Methodist Church are appointed to every prison. Ministers of other denominations are either appointed or specially called in as required.

In England and Wales pre-release courses, at which experts hold open forum with prisoners nearing their release on the domestic, social and industrial problems with which they are likely to be faced, are conducted at all prisons. Home leave, allowing five clear days at home, is extensively granted to many categories of prisoners with sentences of two years or over towards the end of their sentences to enable them to make family adjustments and contacts with potential employers.

In England and Wales, prisoners released from preventive detention and corrective training, and young people discharged from borstals and detention centres are subject to statutory supervision. If they fail to observe the conditions of supervision they may be recalled to prison, borstal or detention centre. Statutory supervision is carried out by probation officers of the probation and after-care service, which also undertakes the after-care of any prisoners who, although not subject to statutory supervision, voluntarily seek help.

In Scotland after-care duties are likewise carried out by probation and after-care officers.

YOUNG OFFENDERS

No child under the age of 10 in England and Wales and under the age of 8 in Scotland can be charged with an offence. Those between 10 and 14 in England and Wales and between 8 and 17 in Scotland, who are charged with offences, are dealt with in juvenile courts, unless they have been charged in conjunction with adult offenders or proceeded against on indictment. In England and Wales, those between 14 and 17 are usually dealt with summarily in a juvenile court but may be committed for trial by jury.

In Northern Ireland a child under 8 cannot be charged with an offence. Between the ages of 8 and 17 a young offender will normally be dealt with

by a juvenile court unless charged jointly with an adult or committed for trial by jury in the case of an indictable offence. Such committal may take place at the request of the accused's parents or at the discretion of the juvenile court.

Methods of treatment available in law for dealing with children and young persons found guilty of committing an offence¹ include: absolute discharge; conditional discharge (in England and Wales and Northern Ireland); fines imposed upon the offender or, in certain circumstances, upon his parents; probation; committal to the care of a fit person (normally the appropriate local authority) until the age of 18; or committal to an approved school. Offenders aged not less than 10 and under 21 may be ordered to attend an attendance centre; aged not less than 14 and under 21, they may be detained in a detention centre; aged not less than 15 and under 21 (in Northern Ireland not less than 16 and under 21), they may be sent for a period of borstal training; and aged not less than 17 and under 21, they may be given a prison sentence (see p. 81). In Scotland offenders of 17 and under 21 found unsuitable for detention centre or borstal training may be detained in a young offenders' institution.

Remand

In England, Wales and Scotland remand homes are provided by local authorities for the custody of boys and girls under the age of 17 before their appearance in court, or between court appearances (while enquiries are made as to the best method of treatment for them), while they are awaiting vacancies in approved schools, or for a short period (up to a month) of punitive detention. In Northern Ireland the responsibility for providing or arranging for the provision of remand homes rests with the Ministry of Home Affairs.

In addition to remand homes, remand centres are being established in England and Wales (and are planned for Scotland), to which a court may send young people aged 17 and under 21 who would otherwise be remanded to prison, and those between the ages of 14 and 17 who are unsuitable for remand homes.

The system of remand offers valuable opportunities for the observation of any young offender on whose physical or mental condition a medical report may be desirable to help the court in deciding the most suitable method of dealing with the case.

Approved Schools

Approved schools are boarding schools for boys and girls under the age of 17 whom the courts consider to need not only removal from home but also a fairly long period of residential training. Boys and girls may be sent to approved schools because they have committed an offence or are in need of care or protection or on certain other grounds not involving the commission of an offence. The schools may be provided by local authorities,

¹New methods of treating young delinquents have been proposed to remove children from the ambit of the criminal law: *Children and Young Persons, Scotland* (Kilbrandon Report), Cmnd. 2306, HMSO 1964; *The Child, the Family and the Young Offender*, Cmnd. 2742, HMSO 1965.

by voluntary organisations concerned with the welfare of children and young people on a national scale, or by local committees formed by people interested in such work. In England and Wales the schools must be approved by the Home Secretary; in Scotland by the Secretary of State for Scotland; and in Northern Ireland, where they are known as training schools, by the Ministry of Home Affairs.

The schools, which are for boys only or for girls only, are classified according to age on admission, and, within each age-group, there are separate schools for Roman Catholic children. Assignment to a school in the appropriate age group is determined by such considerations as the location of the school in relation to the home, the type of training provided, and the probable reaction of a child or young person to the individual personalities of the staff.

A child under the age of 12 years and 4 months at the time of committal may be kept in an approved school until he reaches the age of 15 years and 4 months; if he is older than 12 years and 4 months he may be kept in a school until the expiry of three years from the date of committal or until he reaches the age of 19, whichever is the shorter period. The upper age limit may be extended to 19½ in certain circumstances, and the period of detention of an absconder is lengthened by any period spent unlawfully absent from the school.

The primary object of approved school training is the readjustment of the boys and girls for their return to the community; contact is maintained with their homes while they are in the schools. Managers of approved schools are under an obligation to review the progress of each child in their care with a view to releasing him as soon as he has made sufficient progress in his training. After release, children remain under the care and supervision of the managers for two years or until they reach the age of 21, whichever is the earlier.

Attendance Centres

Over 50 attendance centres have been established in England and Wales to deal with boys between the ages of 10 and 17 found guilty of offences for which an adult can be sentenced to imprisonment. This form of treatment is designed to teach young offenders a respect for the law and to give them some instruction in the proper use of leisure. Boys ordered to attend must do so during their spare time on Saturday mornings or afternoons; they may be required to attend for up to three hours on any one occasion and for a total of not less than 12 hours (with certain exceptions) and not more than 24. The activities include a period of instruction in handicrafts, or a lecture (for example, on first aid) and a period of physical training or disciplinary tasks under supervision. Efforts are made at the centres to induce the boys to join a youth club or other suitable organisation.

There are also two centres for youths aged 17 to 21 which operate on lines similar to those adopted at the juvenile centres, but the activities are adapted to meet the needs of the older age group.

Detention Centres

Detention centres provide a means of treating young offenders for whom a long period of residential training in an approved school or borstal does

not seem necessary but who cannot be taught respect for the law by such measures as fines or probation. In England and Wales junior centres are available for boys between the ages of 14 and 17 years, and senior centres for boys between the ages of 17 and 21. One centre is also available for girls between 16 and 21. In Scotland there are two senior centres. Detention in England and Wales may be for not less than three and not more than six months; if consecutive sentences are passed, the total term may not exceed nine months at any one time. Remission of up to one-sixth of the sentence may be earned for good conduct. In Scotland the fixed period for all detention centre sentences is three months.

As the intention is primarily deterrent, the life of a centre is strict and vigorous, demanding a brisk tempo and the highest possible standard of discipline and behaviour. The keynote is positive training in a routine which provides a normal working week of 44 hours, including one hour daily devoted to physical training. Boys of compulsory school age receive full-time education, and classes of further education are provided for others in the evenings. Statutory supervision for up to 12 months of young people discharged from detention centres is undertaken by probation officers.

Borstal Institutions

The borstal training system consists of different borstals for different types of young offender, classified according to such criteria as age, intelligence and criminal sophistication. There are also a few borstals for special purposes, such as allocation or recall. In England and Wales the period of detention ranges from six months to two years and is followed by supervision for two years from the date of release. In Scotland, where there is no minimum period of detention, the maximum is two years and the supervision period is for one year from the date of release from the institution. Sentences in Northern Ireland are for periods not exceeding three years including the period under supervision; normally release does not take place until at least nine months of the sentence has expired. The system is essentially remedial and educational, based on personal training by a carefully selected staff. Emphasis is placed on vocational training in skilled trades; there is much freedom of movement, and many borstals are open establishments. An initial period of classification ensures that each young offender is sent to the institution best suited to his or her requirements.

Young Prisoners' Centres

Young prisoners' centres, which provide special training suited to the age and character of the offenders, are provided for those under 21, who are sentenced to imprisonment. On release the offenders are subject to supervision under licence for a period equal to the amount of remission earned on the full sentence, subject to a minimum of six months. Remission is granted at the normal rate of one-third.

PROBATION

Probation is designed to secure the rehabilitation of an offender while he remains at work or at school under the supervision of a probation officer, whose duty it is to advise, assist and befriend him. A cardinal feature of the

service is that it relies on the co-operation of the offender. Before making a probation order, the court must explain its effects and make sure that the probationer understands that if he fails to comply with the requirements of the order he will be liable to be dealt with for the original offence. A probation order cannot be made without the consent of the person concerned unless (in England, Wales, and Northern Ireland only) he is under 14 years of age. The order usually requires the probationer to keep in regular touch with the probation officer, to be of good behaviour and to lead an industrious life. It may also require him to live in a specified place, or to submit to treatment for his mental condition. A probation order is made for not less than one year and not more than three years.

The services of probation officers are available to every criminal court. Their duties include making social enquiry reports to assist the court in selecting the most appropriate treatment for offenders, undertaking matrimonial conciliation, supervising children in need of care and protection, and providing after-care for those released from approved schools, borstals, detention centres and prisons.

LEGAL AID AND ADVICE

FREE LEGAL assistance has been available to people of slender means and resources for centuries in some courts—to a limited extent in England and Wales, and to a somewhat greater extent in Scotland—but, since 1949 in Great Britain and 1965 in Northern Ireland, statutory schemes for providing legal aid in civil matters have come into operation, until today legal aid is available for nearly all types of civil proceedings in nearly all courts of law. It is also available for oral legal advice and for certain matters where the assistance of a lawyer is needed but which do not (or do not yet) involve litigation.

Legal Aid in Civil Cases

Free legal aid in civil cases is available to people with very small incomes and capital, and contributory legal aid to those in higher income and capital groups. The majority of people are financially eligible for legal aid.

The legal aid scheme in England and Wales is run by the Law Society under the general guidance of the Lord Chancellor. It is operated by 12 area committees and a network of local committees composed of barristers and solicitors (who may be paid a fee), with a salaried staff. The cost is met from the Legal Aid Fund, drawn from three sources: contributions from those assisted; costs recovered from opposite parties in litigation; and a grant from the Exchequer.

Applicants for free legal aid must show that they have reasonable grounds for asserting or disputing a claim. A successful applicant is allowed to select from a panel a solicitor who, if necessary, instructs a barrister, and the case is then conducted in the ordinary way. Certain types of action, including libel and slander, are excluded from the scheme.

In Scotland the legal aid scheme is administered by the Law Society of Scotland through a supervisory central committee, the Supreme Court committee, and 16 local committees. An applicant is required to show 'probable cause' and produce in support of his application a statement corroborated according to the requirements of Scottish law. Assistance is available in connection with appeals to the House of Lords from the Court of Session, in civil proceedings before the Court of Session, the Lands Valuation Appeal Court, and the sheriff courts. In matters where litigation is not involved, the applicant must show that he has reasonable grounds for taking the proposed legal action.

In Northern Ireland the legal aid scheme is administered by the Incorporated Law Society of Northern Ireland under the general guidance of the Ministry of Home Affairs. The scheme provides for legal aid in proceedings in the Supreme Court, the County Court and in certain civil proceedings in magistrates' courts.

Legal Aid in Criminal Courts

In the criminal courts in England and Wales free legal aid is at present¹ provided by the granting of either a legal aid certificate which entitles the recipient to the services of a solicitor (or, in the case of a preliminary

¹ Recommendations for a number of changes in the system of legal aid in criminal proceedings have been made by a departmental committee of the Home Office: *Report of the Departmental Committee on Legal Aid in Criminal Proceedings*, Cmnd. 2934, HMSO 1966, 8s.

enquiry into a charge of murder, of a solicitor and counsel) in defending a charge heard summarily or at committal proceedings in indictable cases, or a defence certificate which provides both solicitor and counsel in a trial on indictment. The granting of these certificates is in the discretion of the justices or judge before whom the applicant is to be tried, except in the case of a person committed for trial on a charge of murder, when a defence certificate must be granted if the defendant has insufficient means.

In appeal cases at quarter sessions an appeal aid certificate may be granted by a magistrates' court or quarter sessions. The granting of legal aid in appeals to the Court of Criminal Appeal rests with that court which may also grant legal aid for the purposes of a further appeal to the House of Lords.

The cost of legal aid in magistrates' courts is paid out of the Legal Aid Fund. In the higher courts payments are made in the first instance out of local authority funds and the cost is reimbursed by the central Government.

Legal aid in criminal proceedings in Scotland is available to everyone in custody on first appearance in the High Court of Justiciary, the sheriff courts and certain juvenile courts. Otherwise, it is granted for proceedings in these courts at the discretion of the courts themselves except in appeals where the final decision whether or not to grant legal aid is in the hands of the Supreme Court Committee of the Law Society of Scotland.

Legal Advice

Oral advice on legal matters is available, both in England and Wales and in Scotland, free of charge to people in receipt of national assistance¹ and at a very reasonable cost, i.e. at 2s. 6d. for an interview of up to 30 minutes, to those of limited means. Advice is given by practising solicitors paid out of legal aid funds. The scheme is administered by the two Law Societies, which also run voluntary schemes (for a fee of £1) for those who do not qualify for statutory assistance.

¹ See Appendix I.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS have been a feature of life in Britain for centuries and most social reform owes its origin to groups of like-minded people who combined their resources to improve the life of the community. The growth of voluntary organisations, particularly in the second half of the nineteenth century, was followed by further development in the early part of the twentieth century, accompanying the advance of government functions in the field of social welfare. During the second world war and in the years immediately afterwards when a comprehensive system of social security was being evolved an even greater number of voluntary organisations came into being. Now that the State has assumed much wider responsibility for the social services, voluntary action works in close partnership in many fields of activity. State services often work through voluntary societies, and statutory bodies and voluntary organisations co-operate closely.

Although many voluntary societies were, and a few still are, entirely administered by unpaid officials, the majority are now staffed by salaried administrators, and those concerned with personal services or casework employ trained social workers; but there are still large numbers of people from all walks of life who give part- and full-time unpaid service. An increasing number of organisations arrange training schemes for staff.

Co-ordination in social welfare is provided by the National Council of Social Service. The council is a representative body, developing co-operation between voluntary societies and statutory authorities through consultation and joint action. It provides information, carries out research, initiates experiments and undertakes promotional work in the United Kingdom and overseas. The Scottish Council of Social Service, the Northern Ireland Council of Social Service and the Council of Social Service for Wales and Monmouthshire provide similar services.

The number of voluntary organisations now run into thousands, ranging from large national societies to small local groups. Some are directly concerned with giving personal service, others with influencing public opinion. The work of some is religious in inspiration, including such national organisations as the Salvation Army, the Church Army, TOC H, the Church of England Children's Society, the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Church of Scotland Committee on Social Service, the Society of Friends, the Society of St. Vincent de Paul and the Jewish Welfare Board. On a local scale, good neighbour schemes which give help to the elderly, the sick and disabled are conducted by churches of many denominations, often now in co-operation with each other.

The Charity Commission

The Charity Commission, a government department, maintains central and local registers of charities, which are open to public inspection, and gives free advice to trustees of charities. It makes schemes to modify their purposes or facilitate their administration, where necessary, provides an officially guaranteed custodian trustee, and is closely concerned with The Charities Official Investment Fund, a common investment fund open to charities in England and Wales. It works to promote co-operation between charities and State services and encourages the institution of reviews of charities by local government authorities. The commissioners have powers to investigate the affairs of most charities.

Financing the Voluntary Services

Although voluntary organisations derive at least part of their funds from voluntary sources, central and local government are giving increasing financial aid, and legislation concerned with the social services makes provision for local authorities to support voluntary action in many fields. The voluntary contributions include subscriptions and donations from individuals and organisations, including industrial and commercial firms; and large charitable trusts, most of which were founded in the last 50 years, are an important source of income, especially for experimental and research work. Among the more important are the Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation, the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, King George's Jubilee Trust, the National Corporation for the Care of Old People, the Nuffield Foundation, the Pilgrim Trust and the Wolfson Foundation.

Citizens' Advice Bureaux

A link between the individual and the services available to him is provided by the Citizens' Advice Bureau movement. This movement was started in 1939 as a war-time advice and information service and has developed into one of the largest voluntary undertakings in Britain. There are now more than 450 bureaux dealing with over a million enquiries annually, and experience has shown that many people prefer to seek help from an independent rather than an official service. The bureaux interpret the law for those who have difficulty in understanding it and help the citizen to benefit from and use the services available to him. The National Citizens' Advice Bureau Council receives a government grant and the majority of bureaux are supported by their respective local authorities.

Community Organisation

In communities of all sizes groups and individuals combine their experience and resources to meet specific needs and improve the quality of community life. In villages this may be by means of the parish council or village hall committee; in urban neighbourhoods through a community association; and in cities and counties by means of councils of social service and rural community councils. Work of this kind was pioneered in the late nineteenth century by the early guilds of help, and by settlements, many of which were established in the poorer parts of cities by universities.

The preservation of the countryside and of buildings of architectural and historical interest is the concern of a number of voluntary organisations whose aim is to maintain and improve Britain's amenities (see pp. 59–60).

Family Welfare Services

Some of the work done by voluntary bodies in providing help for families, including marriage guidance, aid to the unmarried mother and to children deprived of a normal home life, is described in the section of this pamphlet dealing with family welfare (see p. 29).

Youth Services

The part played by voluntary effort in partnership with local and central government in the provision of youth services is described on pp. 51–4.

There is also a large field of activities in which service to the community is given by youth. These activities, which include help to the elderly, to hospitals and to mothers and children, may be organised through schools or youth clubs or through such organisations as International Voluntary Service, which arranges work camps in Britain and overseas, and Voluntary Service Overseas which enables young volunteers to assist in longer-term projects in the developing countries.

Services for the Elderly

Services for the elderly depend very largely on the work of voluntary organisations (see p. 25) which combine with public authorities to form the National Old People's Welfare Council and to create a network of more than 1,600 old people's welfare committees throughout the country.

Services for the Sick and Handicapped

A very large range of activities for the sick and handicapped both in the home and in clubs, residential homes and clinics are undertaken by voluntary workers.

Voluntary service is given by the British Red Cross Society, the St. John Ambulance Brigade and the St. Andrew's Ambulance Association in Scotland and a number of societies exist to help sufferers from particular disabilities, such as the Royal National Institute for the Blind, the Royal National Institute for the Deaf, the National Association for Mental Health, The Spastics Society and the constituent members of the Central Council for the Disabled.

The majority of hospitals in England and Wales have their own Leagues of Friends or similar bodies of voluntary workers who organise and undertake a variety of services. Many hospitals also receive help from the British Red Cross Society, the Order of St. John, or a similar organisation. The operation of canteens for out-patients, and trolley-shops and library services for in-patients, receiving new patients, and visiting patients in the wards and at home when they have left hospital are among the tasks commonly undertaken.

The care and education of children who are crippled, blind, deaf or otherwise handicapped is undertaken by local authorities through the agency of special schools and residential homes, many of which were started, as new ones still are, by voluntary bodies. Voluntary agencies, such as the National Society for Mentally Handicapped Children and the Deaf Children's Society, also do much for handicapped children in their own homes.

Many voluntary associations, such as the British Legion and other ex-Service organisations, give financial aid and personal service to disabled ex-Service men and women and their families. These bodies work in co-operation with the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance.¹

Mentally handicapped people are the responsibility of public authorities; but the voluntary bodies concerned with mental health have formed the National Association for Mental Health, which carries out a wide programme of advisory, educational and therapeutic work.

¹See Appendix I.

A wide range of voluntary personal service is given by the Women's Voluntary Service, which helps in every kind of practical difficulty, brings 'meals on wheels' to housebound invalids and old people, minds children, and visits the sick in hospital, as well as doing relief work in emergencies.

Training for Voluntary Work

An important development in recent years has been the introduction of training schemes for voluntary workers. The British Red Cross Society has trained its voluntary workers for many years; the National Marriage Guidance Council carries out a rigorous method of selection and training; Citizens' Advice Bureaux workers are also carefully selected and trained.

In the Women's Voluntary Service training is given for tasks of special responsibility and the National Old People's Welfare Council arranges training courses at local, regional and national levels. An increasing number of local councils of social service provide general and introductory courses for volunteers, often in co-operation with university extra-mural boards and other adult education authorities.

STAFFING THE SOCIAL SERVICES

THERE ARE two broad classes of people engaged full-time in the social services. On the one hand there are the specialists technically qualified for a particular profession or occupation, for example, teachers, doctors or qualified social workers. On the other there are those employed by public authorities or voluntary bodies to administer the social services; these include people with specialised functions such as disablement resettlement officers or youth employment officers, who receive some in-service training for this work, as well as organisers and office workers. In addition, there are the voluntary workers who work unpaid in the social services in their own spare time, in particular by giving personal service, for example, as youth leaders, visitors to old people, marriage guidance counsellors or members of Women's Voluntary Service.

Teachers

School teachers are appointed by local education authorities or school governing bodies or managers.

For the training of teachers there are now in England and Wales 155 colleges of education (14 of which are for day students only), 26 university departments of education, four colleges for intending teachers for technical institutions and 16 art teacher training centres. In Scotland there are nine colleges of education and Northern Ireland has six colleges of education and one university department of education.

Courses (see p. 46) are normally of one year's duration for graduates or the equivalent, and of three years for non-graduates. Plans are being implemented to give students wider opportunities to obtain a degree in education as well as a professional qualification by means of a four-year course. The education departments, the universities, local education authorities and other bodies provide a variety of short courses for practising teachers.

Staff of colleges of education and technical colleges are appointed by the local education authorities, except in the case of voluntary colleges where they are appointed by the governing bodies.

The Medical, Dental and Allied Professions

Only people whose names are on the medical register can practise as doctors under the National Health Service. Apart from registered medical practitioners, only people whose names are on the dentists' register can practise the full range of dentistry in Britain; dental auxiliaries who have undergone a two-year training course may do some simple work under supervision. The minimum qualification for registration as a doctor requires five to seven years' training in medical school and hospital, with an additional year's experience as a resident house officer in a hospital; for a dentist, four or more years at a dental school are required. The governing body of the medical profession is the General Medical Council, first set up in 1858; that of the dentists is the General Dental Council, which succeeded the Dental Board in 1956. The British Medical Association is the largest of the doctors' professional associations; that of the dentists is the British Dental Association.

The minimum period of hospital training required to qualify for registration as a general trained nurse is three years. Training is available also in

sick children's, mental, and mental subnormality nursing. The course for an enrolled nurse is a two-year one. The governing body of the nursing profession is the General Nursing Council, set up in 1919. Midwives must have the certificate of the Central Midwives Board. Most pupil midwives are already State-registered general nurses or sick children's nurses; for them the two-year midwifery training period is reduced to one year and, for State-enrolled nurses, to 18 months. The Royal College of Nursing and the Royal College of Midwives are the professional bodies for nurses and midwives. Health visitors are State-registered general or sick children's nurses who have undergone at least the first part of the midwifery course or obstetric nursing before taking a year's course in health visiting. This course is promoted by the Council for the Training of Health Visitors.

Only registered pharmaceutical chemists may practise as pharmacists or describe themselves as such, and qualifications requiring four to five years' academic study and practical training are necessary for registration. The Pharmaceutical Society of Great Britain is the governing body of the profession. Under the Opticians' Act 1958 a General Optical Council regulates the profession of ophthalmic optician and only registered ophthalmic opticians (or registered medical practitioners) may test sight. Training takes three years followed by a year under supervision.

For the professions of chiropodist, dietitian, medical laboratory technician, occupational therapist, physiotherapist, radiographer, remedial gymnast and speech therapist a good general education is required, followed by professional training, mostly of two or three years. Only people with approved qualifications may be employed in these professions in the National Health Service; with the exception of speech therapists, the professions have their own professional boards, supervised by the Council for Professions Supplementary to Medicine. The length and nature of the training varies according to the profession and may be as long as three years.

Social Workers

Social services of all kinds depend more and more for their operation upon social workers who are full-time and salaried, and an increasing number of whom have had the benefit of training. Training for many forms of social work consists of a basic university degree, diploma or certificate course in social science followed by a university course in applied social studies or specialised training for a particular service, for example, family casework, child care, probation or medical social work. This training is sometimes organised by the profession concerned. The Home Secretary has appointed the Central Training Council in Child Care, a non-statutory body, to promote training in child care and to select people for training. The council recognises suitable courses run by various educational and other bodies as leading to the award of its Letter of Recognition and its Certificate in the Residential Care of Children. Under the Health Visiting and Social Work (Training) Act 1962, the Council for Training in Social Work has been set up to promote the training of workers in the local authority health and welfare services and similar services run by voluntary organisations. Full-time courses lasting two years are provided at 20 colleges of further education in Britain, and lead to the Certificate in Social Work. In addition, under an emergency programme lasting for five years, there are special one-year courses, for

people over 35 and with five years' relevant experience, at six colleges of further education: these courses also lead to the Certificate in Social Work. Expansion both in the number of two-year courses and in the places provided is continuing. Medical social workers must obtain the certificate of the Institute of Medical Social Workers, or have taken a recognised university course to qualify them for membership of the institute. Psychiatric social workers are required to have a certificate showing they have attended the mental health course provided at certain universities.

The voluntary social worker, giving full- and part-time service, has done pioneer work in many of Britain's social services. Voluntary organisations were the first to employ and train social workers, but government departments and local authorities now employ a considerable number of trained social workers, for example, in child care, youth work, medical and psychiatric social work, and the probation service.

The Civil Service¹

The permanent Home Civil Service of the British Government is recruited by the Civil Service Commission. The main grades, as distinct from certain grades particular to individual departments, are:

1. *The Administrative Class*, which is responsible for advising Ministers on policy, for dealing with any difficulties which may arise in carrying out existing policy, and for forecasting the probable effects of new measures. This relatively small class numbers about 2,500; new entrants come from the universities, but civil servants from other classes may be promoted to the administrative class and at present about 40 per cent enter in this way.
2. *The Executive Classes* (numbering some 79,000), which is responsible for the day-to-day conduct of government business, including the higher work of supply and accounts and revenue collection within the framework of established policy. From it come the managers of local offices. Members of this class may, after entry, train for specialist work such as that of auditor, actuary or statistician.
3. *The Specialist Classes*, which number about 123,000 officers in a variety of different categories for carrying out the wide range of specialised activities which are now undertaken by the Government. The categories include architects, doctors,² engineers, lawyers, surveyors and scientists in all branches of science.
4. *The Clerical Class* (comprising about 132,000), which undertakes all the usual clerical work involved in departmental business, for example, keeping records and handling particular claims in accordance with known rules.
5. *The Ancillary Clerical Classes* (with some 112,000 members) which include clerical assistants, shorthand typists and typists, duplicator operators and machine-operating grades.

¹ For further information, see COI reference paper R. 5599 *The British Civil Service*.

² Employed, for example, in the Health Departments to consider medical aspects of policy, not in the treatment of patients.

6. *Messengerial and Minor Classes* (with some 35,000 members) which, in addition to messengers, include paper keepers, office cleaners and similar workers.

Departmental classes, where employment is peculiar to one department, include the Factory Inspectorate of the Ministry of Labour, the Inspectorates of the Education Departments and Home Departments, and the Mines and Quarries Inspectorate of the Ministry of Power.

The Government of Northern Ireland has its own Civil Service which deals with matters transferred to its jurisdiction. Subject to regional differences, this is modelled on its counterpart in Great Britain.

Full-time prison staff of all ranks, except chaplains, are permanent civil servants. They include such people as medical officers, psychiatrists and nursing sisters, as well as discipline staff and, in Scotland and Northern Ireland, office workers. In England and Wales office work in prisons is performed by staff from the clerical and executive classes of the Home Civil Service.

Local Government Service¹

Over 1 million people, including teachers (see p. 95), transport staff and building workers, are employed in local government service in Britain. Generally speaking, councils are free to make such appointments as they think necessary for carrying out their work, although certain posts (for example, the clerk, the treasurer, and the medical officer of health) are compulsory in almost all councils. Choice of personnel is also left to a great extent to the individual council; in theory, the appointment of certain chief officers is subject to some central control but, in practice, the nominee of the council is nearly always accepted.

As a general rule, officers are of three kinds: heads of departments or chief officers, whose duties are mainly of an administrative and managerial kind; subordinate officers employed in a professional, clerical or technical capacity; and manual workers who are employed to do the physical work for which the council is responsible. Senior staff appointments are usually made at the instance of the committees particularly concerned; most junior appointments are made by heads of departments, who are also responsible for engaging the manual labour required.

There is no single local government service on a national basis but movement of officers between one council and another occurs frequently. An officer in local government service may apply for a higher position under any local authority in the country. This freedom of movement is welcomed by employing councils no less than by the officers themselves, for it gives councils a wide choice in making their appointments, and means that fresh minds may be brought to a council's business.

Other Public Employment

The administrative and clerical staff of certain public bodies providing

¹ For further information, see COI reference pamphlet RF.P. 5505 *Local Government in Britain*.

the services described in this pamphlet are engaged by them according to their requirements, and are neither civil servants nor local government officers. Examples are the employees of the Hospital Service of the National Health Service and the Arts Council.

APPENDIX I

MINISTRY OF SOCIAL SECURITY AND NEW BENEFITS

A Bill to establish a Ministry of Social Security (see pp. 10–18) responsible for the administration of national insurance, war pensions and family allowances and to introduce a new scheme of non-contributory benefits to replace national assistance was published on 16th May.

The Bill provides for the abolition of the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance and the National Assistance Board. The new ministry is expected to be established early in August but the National Assistance Board will continue until the end of the year when the new non-contributory benefits will become payable. A Supplementary Benefits Commission will be appointed to guide the new scheme and to determine awards of benefits.

The New Benefit

The new non-contributory benefits in place of national assistance will, among other things, provide a form of guaranteed income for those who require such a benefit over a long period. The purpose of the changes is to eliminate features of the existing scheme which are misunderstood or disliked. The Government believes that the elderly will have no hesitation in claiming the new benefit, to which they are entitled.

The most important features of the new scheme are:

1. For long-term recipients, the numerous small discretionary additions to national assistance allowances will be replaced by one special addition of 9s. a week to the normal requirements.
2. Awards to people over pension age will normally be renewed annually unless their circumstances change significantly during the year.
3. It is proposed that, as soon as possible, national insurance retirement pensioners who qualify for supplementary pension will be able to claim both pensions together by means of one order book instead of two, as at present.
4. The assessment rules for the new benefits will be a good deal simpler and more rational than those for national assistance.

Supplementary Pensions

The benefit for people over retirement age—men over 65 years, women over 60 years, or married couples where the man is 65 or over—will be called a supplementary pension. An elderly person receiving a supplementary pension and living alone as a householder will have a guaranteed income, after paying his net rent and rates, of £4 10s. a week, compared with £3 16s. at present. A married couple living alone will have a guaranteed income, after they have paid their net rent and rates, of £7 2s. a week, compared with £6 5s. 6d. at present.

Supplementary Allowances

The benefit for those under pension age but aged 16 or over will be called a supplementary allowance. The special higher allowances for the blind will continue.

Exclusion from Benefit

The Bill excludes from benefit, with certain exceptions, people in full-time work and their dependants, and also school children continuing full-time education at school after the age of 16 except as the dependants of persons receiving benefit. People involved in trade disputes, but not their dependants, are also disqualified.

Adjustment in Relation to Normal Wages

The Bill contains a provision which embodies the current national assistance practice to prevent a recipient of a supplementary allowance from being better off

while unemployed than he would be if he were working full-time in his normal occupation.

Informing Pensioners of their Rights

Arrangements will be made as soon as possible to ensure that people retired or widowed are aware of their rights under the new scheme. This will be done by personal approach if necessary. The aim will be to ensure that not only financial needs but also needs for welfare services will be brought to the notice of the authorities which can provide them.

Cost of the New Benefits

The additional cost of the proposals for non-contributory benefits compared with the cost of the existing National Assistance scheme will be of the order of £65 million in a full year. In December 1965 the number of assistance grants in payment was 1,997,000 of which 1,422,000 were to people over pension age.

APPENDIX II

SOCIAL SERVICE DEPARTMENTS AND ORGANISATIONS

SOCIAL SECURITY

Government Departments

- Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance, 10 John Adam Street, London, W.C.2.
Ministry of Health and Social Services, Dundonald House, Upper Newtownards Road, Belfast 4.
National Assistance Board, 6 St. Andrew Street, London, E.C.4.
National Assistance Board for Northern Ireland, Fermanagh House, Ormeau Avenue, Belfast.
Registrar of Non-Participating Employments, 287 High Holborn, London, W.C.1.

Other Bodies

- British Legion, 49 Pall Mall, London, S.W.1.

HEALTH AND WELFARE

Government Departments and Official Bodies

- Ministry of Health, Alexander Fleming House, Elephant and Castle, London, S.E.1.
Central Council for Health Education, Tavistock House, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.
Scottish Home and Health Department, St. Andrew's House, Edinburgh 1.
Scottish Council for Health Education, 16 York Place, Edinburgh 1.
General Board of Control for Scotland, St. Andrew's House, Edinburgh 1.
Ministry of Health and Social Services, Dundonald House, Upper Newtownards Road, Belfast 4.
General Dental Council, 37 Wimpole Street, London, W.1.
General Medical Council, 44 Hallam Street, London, W.1.
General Nursing Council for England and Wales, 23 Portland Place, London, W.1.
General Optical Council, 41 Harley Street, London, W.1.
General Register Office, Somerset House, Strand, London, W.C.2, and New Register House, Edinburgh 2.
Registrar-General for Scotland, New Register House, Edinburgh 2.
Medical Research Council, 20 Park Crescent, London, W.1.

Other Bodies

- British Council for Rehabilitation, Tavistock House (South), Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.
British Diabetic Association, 152 Harley Street, London, W.1.
British Epilepsy Association, 27 Nassau Street, London, W.1.
British Polio Fellowship, Clifton House, Euston Road, London, N.W.1.
British Red Cross Society, 14 and 15 Grosvenor Crescent, London, S.W.1.
British Rheumatism and Arthritis Association, 11 Beaumont Street, London, W.1.
Central Council for the Disabled, 34 Eccleston Square London, S.W.1.
Chest and Heart Association, Tavistock House (North), Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.
Invalid Children's Aid Association, 4 Palace Gate, London, W.8.
King Edward's Hospital Fund for London, 34 King Street, London, E.C.2.
Mental After-Care Association, 110 Jermyn Street, London, S.W.1.
National Association for Maternal and Child Welfare, Tavistock House, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.
National Association for Mental Health, 39 Queen Anne Street, London, W.1.
National Association for the Paralysed, 1 York Street, London, W.1.
National Corporation for the Care of Old People, Nuffield Lodge, Regent's Park, London, N.W.1.
National League of Hospital Friends, 7 Grosvenor Crescent, London, S.W.1.
National Old People's Welfare Council, 26 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
National Society for Epileptics, Chalfont Colony, Chalfont St. Peter, Bucks.

National Society for Mentally Handicapped Children, 5 Bulstrode Street, London W.1.
 Nuffield Provincial Hospitals Trust, 3 Prince Albert Road, London, N.W.1.
 Order of St. John, St. John's Gate, London, E.C.1.
 Royal National Institute for the Blind, 224 Great Portland Street, London, W.1.
 Royal National Institute for the Deaf, 105 Gower Street, London, W.C.1.
 Royal Society of Health, 90 Buckingham Palace Road, London, S.W.1
 Royal Sanitary Association for Scotland, 150 St. Vincent Street, Glasgow, C.2.
 St. Dunstan's (for war-blinded), 191 Marylebone Road, London, W.1.
 Scottish Association for the Deaf, 158 West Regent Street, Glasgow, C.2.
 Scottish Association for Mental Health, 57 Melville Street, Edinburgh 3.
 Scottish Council for the Care of Spastics, Rhuemore, 22 Corstorphine Road, Edinburgh 12.
 Scottish Epilepsy Association, 24 St. Vincent Place, Glasgow, C.1.
 Scottish National Federation for the Welfare of the Blind, 4 Coates Crescent, Edinburgh 3.
 Scottish Old People's Welfare Committee, 10 Alva Street, Edinburgh 2.
 Shaftesbury Society, 112 Regency Street, London, S.W.1.
 The Spastics Society, 12 Park Crescent, London, W.1.

FAMILY WELFARE

Government Departments

Home Office, Children's Department, Horseferry House, Dean Ryle Street, London, S.W.1.
 Ministry of Home Affairs, Stormont, Belfast.
 Scottish Education Department, St. Andrew's House, Edinburgh 1.

Other Bodies

Catholic Marriage Advisory Council, 15 Lansdowne Road, London, W.11.
 Church Army, 185 Marylebone Road, London, N.W.1.
 Church of England Board for Social Responsibility, Church House, Dean's Yard, London, S.W.1.
 Church of Scotland Committee on Social Service, 121 George Street, Edinburgh 2.
 Family Service Units, 207 Marylebone Road, London, N.W.1.
 Family Welfare Association, 296 Vauxhall Bridge Road, London, S.W.1.
 National Adoption Society, 47A Manchester Street, London, W.1.
 National Bureau for Co-operation in Child Care, 1 Fitzroy Square, London, W.1.
 National Council for the Unmarried Mother and Her Child, 255 Kentish Town Road, London, N.W.5.
 National Council of Voluntary Child Care Organisations, 73 St. Charles Square, London, W.10.
 National Marriage Guidance Council, 58 Queen Anne Street, London, W.1.
 NSPCC (National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children), 1 Riding House Street, London, W.1.
 Royal Scottish Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children, 16 Melville Street, Edinburgh 3.
 Scottish Council for the Unmarried Mother and Her Child, 30 Castle Street, Edinburgh 2.
 Scottish Marriage Guidance Council, 45 Manor Place, Edinburgh 3.

EDUCATION

Government Departments and Official Bodies

Department of Education and Science, Curzon Street, London, W.1.
 Scottish Education Department, St. Andrew's House, Edinburgh 1.
 Ministry of Education (Northern Ireland), Dundonald House, Upper Newtownards Road, Belfast 4.

Ministry of Overseas Development, Eland House, Stag Place, Victoria Street, London, S.W.1.

British Council, 65 Davies Street, London, W.1.

Council for National Academic Awards, 24 Park Crescent, London, W.1.

University Grants Committee, 14 Park Crescent, London, W.1.

Other Bodies

Advisory Centre for Education (ACE), 57 Russell Street, Cambridge.

Association of British Correspondence Colleges Ltd., 4-7 Chiswell Street, London, E.C.1.

Association of Commonwealth Universities, 36 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1.

Association of Governing Bodies of Girls' Public Schools, 251 Brompton Road, London, S.W.3.

Association of Governing Bodies of Public Schools (Boys), West Rood, West Hill, Harrow-on-the-Hill, Middlesex.

British Association for Commercial and Industrial Education (BACIE), 16 Park Crescent, London, W.1.

Catholic Education Council for England and Wales, 41 Cromwell Road, London, S.W.7.

Central Bureau for Educational Visits and Exchanges, 55A Duke Street, Grosvenor Square, London, W.1.

Central Training Council in Child Care, Horseferry House, Dean Ryle Street, London, S.W.1.

Conference of Educational Associations, Conference Office, The College of Preceptors, 2 Bloomsbury Square, London, W.C.1.

Educational Centres Association, Friends Hall, Greenleaf Road, London, E.17.

Educational Interchange Council, 43 Russell Square, London, W.C.1.

National Association of Pre-School Play Groups, 149 Fleet Street, London, E.C.4.

National Committee for Audio-Visual Aids in Education, 33 Queen Anne Street, London, W.1.

National Federation of Community Associations, 26 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.

National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales, The Mere, Upton Park, Slough, Bucks.

National Institute of Adult Education, 35 Queen Anne Street, London, W.1.

National Union of Teachers, Hamilton House, Mabledon Place, London, W.C.1.

Nursery School Association of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, 89 Stamford Street, London, S.E.1.

Schools Council, 38 Belgrave Square, London, S.W.1.

Scottish Council for Research in Education, 46 Moray Place, Edinburgh.

Universities Central Council on Admissions, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

YOUTH SERVICE

Government Departments—*As under Education*

Other Bodies

Central Council of Physical Recreation, 26 Park Crescent, London, W.1.

Church of England Youth Council, 35 Great Peter Street, London, S.W.1.

Duke of Edinburgh's Award, 2 Old Queen Street, London, S.W.1.

King George's Jubilee Trust, 166 Piccadilly, London, W.1.

National Association of Youth Clubs, 30 Devonshire Street, London, W.1.

National Playing Fields Association, 57B Catherine Place, London, S.W.1.

Outward Bound Trust, 73 Great Peter Street, London, S.W.1.

Scottish Council of Physical Recreation, 4 Queensferry Street, Edinburgh 2.

Scottish Standing Conference of Voluntary Youth Organisations, 8 Palmerston Place, Edinburgh 12.

Scottish Youth Hostels Association, 7 Bruntsfield Crescent, Edinburgh 10.
Standing Conference of National Voluntary Youth Organisations, 26 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
Youth Hostels Association, 29 John Adam Street, London, W.C.2.

PLANNING AND HOUSING

Government Departments and Official Bodies

Ministry of Housing and Local Government, Whitehall, London, S.W.1.
Department of Health for Scotland, St. Andrew's House, Edinburgh.
Ministry of Development, Stormont, Belfast.
National Parks Commission, 1 Cambridge Terrace, London, N.W.1.
Scottish Special Housing Association, 15-21 Palmerston Place, Edinburgh, 12.
Northern Ireland Housing Trust, 12 Hope Street, Belfast 12.

Other Bodies

The Housing Centre Trust, 13 Suffolk Street, London, S.W.1.
National Federation of Housing Societies, 12 Suffolk Street, London, S.W.1.
Town and Country Planning Association, 28 King Street, London, W.C.2.
Town Planning Institute, 26 Portland Place, London, W.1.

EMPLOYMENT

Government Departments and Official Bodies

Ministry of Labour, 8 St. James's Square, London, S.W.1.
Ministry of Health and Social Services, Dundonald House, Upper Newtownards Road, Belfast 4.
Remploy Ltd., 415 Edgware Road, London, N.W.2.

Other Bodies

Confederation of British Industry, 36 Smith Square, London, S.W.1.
British Institute of Management, Institute of Personnel Management, Management House, 80 Fetter Lane, London, E.C.4.
Industrial Welfare Society, 48 Bryanston Square, London, W.1.
Trades Union Congress, Great Russell Street, London, W.C.1.

TREATMENT OF OFFENDERS

Government Departments and Official Bodies

Central After-Care Association, 289 Borough High Street, London, S.E.1 (Women and Girls) and 2 Abbey Gardens, London, S.W.1 (Men).
Home Office, Whitehall, London, S.W.1.
Scottish Home and Health Department, St. Andrew's House, Edinburgh 1.
Ministry of Home Affairs, Stormont, Belfast.

Other Bodies

Central Council of Probation Committees, 10 Wyndham Place, London, W.1.
Howard League for Penal Reform, 6 Endsleigh Street, London, W.C.1.
Institute for the Study and Treatment of Delinquency, 8 Bourdon Street, London, W.1.
National Association of Discharged Prisoners' Aid Societies, 289 Borough High Street, London, S.E.1.
National Association of Prison Visitors, 71 Chaucer Road, Bedford.

LEGAL AID AND ADVICE

The Law Society, 113 Chancery Lane, London, W.C.2.

Law Society of Scotland, 16 North Bank Street, Edinburgh 1.
The Incorporated Law Society of Northern Ireland, Legal Aid Department, 21
Linenhall Street, Belfast 2.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS¹

British Association of Residential Settlements, Bishop Creighton House, Lillie Road,
London, S.W.6.
Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, Comely Park House, Dunfermline, Fife, Scot-
land.
Children's Country Holidays Fund, 1 York Street, London, W.1.
Citizens' Advice Bureaux, 26 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
Family Planning Association, 231 Tottenham Court Road, London, W.1.
Friends of the Poor, 42 Ebury Street, London, S.W.1.
Jewish Welfare Board, 74A Charlotte Street, London, W.1.
National Council of Social Service, 26 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
National Federation of Community Associations, 26 Bedford Square, London,
W.C.1.
Nuffield Foundation, Nuffield Lodge, Regent's Park, London, N.W.1.
Pilgrim Trust, 2 Great Peter Street, London, S.W.1.
Salvation Army, 101 Queen Victoria Street, London, E.C.4.
Scottish Council of Social Service, 10 Alva Street, Edinburgh 2.
Society of Friends, Friends House, Euston Road, London, N.W.1.
Society of St. Vincent de Paul, Iddlesleigh House, Caxton Street, London, S.W.1.
Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Families' Association, 2 Queen Anne's Gate, Lon-
don, S.W.1.
Women's Group on Public Welfare, 26 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
Women's Voluntary Service, 17 Old Park Lane, London, W.1.

STAFFING

Government Departments and Official Bodies

Advisory Council for Probation and After-Care, Home Office, Whitehall, London,
S.W.1.
Civil Service Commission, 23 Savile Row, London, W.1.
Council for Training in Social Work *also*
Council for the Training of Health Visitors, Clifton House, Euston Road, London,
N.W.1.
Northern Ireland Civil Service Commission, Stormont, Belfast.
Scottish Probation Advisory and Training Council, St. Andrew's House, Edin-
burgh 2.
Treasury, Great George Street, London, S.W.1.

Other Bodies

Association of Assistant Mistresses in Secondary Schools, 29 Gordon Square,
London, W.C.1.
Association of Charity Officers, c/o Governesses' Benevolent Institution, 39
Buckingham Gate, London, S.W.1.
Association of Children's Officers, Friern Barnet Town Hall, London, N.11.
Association of Directors of Welfare Services, 3 Pocklington's Walk, Leicester.
Association of Education Officers, County Education Office, Castle Street, Wor-
cester.
Association of Family Case Workers, 7 Haslemere Road, London, N.8.
Association of Headmistresses, 29 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1.

¹i.e. Charitable trusts and social agencies not listed above.

Association of Mental Health Workers, c/o NAMH, 39 Queen Anne Street, London, W.1.
 Association of Occupational Therapists, 251 Brompton Road, London, S.W.3.
 Association of Psychiatric Social Workers, 71 Albany Street, London, N.W.1.
 Association of Public Health Inspectors, 19 Grosvenor Place, London, S.W.1.
 Association of Social Workers of Great Britain, 296 Vauxhall Bridge Road, London, S.W.1.
 Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education, RTB House, Gower Street, London, W.C.1.
 Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions, Hamilton House, Mabledon Place, London, W.C.1.
 Association of University Teachers, Bremar House, Sale Place, London, W.2.
 British Medical Association, BMA House, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.
 College of General Practitioners, 14 Princes Gate, London, S.W.7.
 County Welfare Officers Association, The Castle, Winchester.
 Educational Institute of Scotland, 46 Moray Place, Edinburgh.
 Headmasters' Association, 29 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1.
 Headmasters' Conference, 29 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1.
 Health Visitors' Association, 36 Eccleston Square, London, S.W.1.
 Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools, 29 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1.
 Institute of Medical Social Workers, 42 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
 Institute of Housing, 50 Tufton Street, London, S.W.1.
 Irish National Teachers' Organisation (Northern Ireland District Office), 83 High Street, Belfast, 1.
 Joint University Council for Social and Public Administration, 218 Sussex Gardens, London, W.2.
 National Association of Head Teachers, 29A, The Broadway, Crawley, Sussex.
 National Association of Home Teachers of the Blind, Treetops, 63 Station Road, Shepley, Nr. Huddersfield, Yorkshire.
 National Association of Prison Visitors, 71 Chaucer Road, Bedford.
 National Association of (Local Education Authority) Youth Service Officers, c/o Education Office, Chapel Street, Salford, 3.
 National Association of Probation Officers, 6 Endsleigh Street, London, W.C.1.
 National Association of Schoolmasters, 59 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1.
 National Association of Youth Employment Officers, c/o County Education Office, Castle Street, Worcester.
 National Council of Home Help Services, Hampton Lodge, The Green, Hampton Court, Surrey.
 National Institute for Social Work Training, Mary Ward Settlement, Tavistock Place, London, W.C.1.
 National Union of Teachers, Hamilton House, Mabledon Place, London, W.C.1.
 Queen's Institute of District Nursing, 57 Lower Belgrave Street, London, S.W.1.
 Royal College of Midwives, 15 Mansfield Street, London, S.W.1.
 Royal College of Nursing, 1A Henrietta Place, London, W.1.
 Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists, 27 Sussex Place, Regent's Park, London, W.1.
 Royal College of Physicians, St. Andrew's Place, London, N.W.1.
 Royal College of Physicians, 9 Queen Street, Edinburgh 2.
 Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh, Nicolson Street, Edinburgh 8.
 Royal College of Surgeons of England, Lincoln's Inn Fields, London, W.C.2.
 Royal College of Physicians and Surgeons, 242 St. Vincent Street, Glasgow, C.2.
 Royal Institute of British Architects, 66 Portland Place, London, W.1.
 Royal Institute of Public Health and Hygiene, 28 Portland Place, London, W.1.

Royal Sanitary Association of Scotland, 150 St. Vincent Street, Glasgow, C.2.
Royal Society of Health, 90 Buckingham Palace Road, London, S.W.1.
Society of Housing Managers, 10 Eccleston Street, London, S.W.1.
Society of Medical Officers of Health, Tavistock House (South), Tavistock Square,
London, W.C.1.
Ulster Teachers' Union, Imperial Buildings, 72 High Street, Belfast 1.

READING LIST¹

			£	s.	d.
General					
BRUCE, M. The Coming of the Welfare State.	<i>Batsford</i>	1965	2	2	0
DONNISON, D. V. and CHAPMAN, V. Social Policy and Administration.	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1965	1	10	0
DRUITT, B. The Growth of the Welfare State.	<i>Hamish Hamilton</i>	1966		7	6
HALL, M. PENELOPE. The Social Services of Modern England.	<i>Routledge</i>	1964	1	8	0
HANCOCK, A. and WILLMOTT, P. Editors. The Social Workers.	<i>British Broadcasting Corporation</i>	1965		8	6
JOHNS, E. A. Social Structure of Modern Britain.	<i>Pergamon Press</i>	1965		17	6
NATIONAL COUNCIL OF SOCIAL SERVICE. Public Social Services: Handbook of Information. Rev. edn.	<i>NCSS</i>	1966		16	0
Family and Community Services in Britain. Reference paper R.5675.	<i>COI</i>	1965			free
Social Security					
Annual Reports:					
Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance. For 1964. Cmnd. 2686.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965		11	0
National Assistance Board. For 1964. Cmnd. 2674.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965		8	0
National Assistance Board for Northern Ireland. For 1964.	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1965		4	0
War Pensioners. For 1964.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965		7	6
Everybody's Guide to National Insurance. Rev. edn.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965			10
Ministry of Social Security Bill 1966 (Memorandum to). Cmnd. 2997.	<i>HMSO</i>	1966		1	0
Social Insurance and Allied Services (Beveridge Report). Cmd. 6404.	<i>HMSO</i>	1942		18	0
Social Security in Britain. Reference pamphlet RF.P. 5455.	<i>COI</i>	1964			free
Health and Welfare					
ABEL-SMITH, B. A. History of the Nursing Profession	<i>Heinemann</i>	1960	1	5	0
DAINTON, COURTNEY. The Story of England's Hospitals.	<i>Museum Press</i>	1961	1	1	0
FARNDALE, J. Editor. Trends in the National Health Service.	<i>Pergamon Press</i>	1964	5	0	0
FREEMAN, H. Editor. Trends in the Mental Health Services.	<i>Pergamon Press</i>	1963	3	10	0
LINDSEY, ALMONT. Socialized Medicine in England and Wales.	<i>University of North Carolina/OUP</i>	1962	2	5	0
MEDICAL SERVICES REVIEW COMMITTEE. Review of the Medical Services in Great Britain (Porritt Report).	<i>Social Assay</i>	1963		18	0
PARKER, JULIA. Local Health and Welfare Services.	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1965	1	5	0
POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC PLANNING. Psychiatric Services in 1975.	<i>PEP</i>	1963		5	0
TIMMS, N. Psychiatric Social Work in Great Britain.	<i>Routledge</i>	1964	1	12	0

¹COI reference pamphlets listed as obtainable free of charge overseas are available to the public in the United Kingdom at a small charge.

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Annual Reports:					
Ministry of Health. For 1965. Cmd. 3039.	<i>HMSO</i>	1966	19	0	
On the State of the Public Health, 1964.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965	16	6	
Health and Local Government Administration in Northern Ireland. For 1964. Cmd. 491.	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1966	5	6	
Scottish Home and Health Department: Health and Welfare Services in Scotland. Report for 1965. Cmd. 2984.	<i>HMSO</i>	1966	8	0	
Field Work of the Family Doctor. Report of Central Health Service Council Sub-committee (Gillie Report).	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	4	6	
Health and Welfare: The Development of Community Care. Cmd. 1973.	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	1	4	0
Health and Welfare: The Development of Community Care. Revision to 1975-76.	<i>HMSO</i>	1966	1	17	6
Health and Education. Report of a Joint Committee of the Central and Scottish Health Service Councils.	<i>HMSO</i>	1964	5	6	
Health Services in Britain. Reference pamphlet RF.P. 5154.	<i>COI</i>	1964	free		
A Hospital Plan for England and Wales. Cmd. 1604.	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	18	6	
The Hospital Building Programme. A revision of the Hospital Plan for England and Wales. Cmd. 3000.	<i>HMSO</i>	1966	6	0	
Hospital Plan for Scotland. Cmd. 1602.	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	2	6	
Review of the Hospital Plan for Scotland. Cmd. 2877.	<i>HMSO</i>	1966	1	6	
Hospital Plan for Northern Ireland, 1966-75. Cmd. 497.	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1966	2	6	
Immigration from the Commonwealth. Cmd. 2739.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965	1	6	
Rehabilitation and Care of the Disabled in Britain. Reference pamphlet RF.P. 4972.	<i>COI</i>	1965	free		
Report of the Working Party on Workshops for the Blind.	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	8	6	
The Elderly					
NATIONAL CORPORATION FOR THE CARE OF OLD PEOPLE. Annual Report 1965-66.	<i>NCCOP</i>	1966	free		
———Old Age: a register of social research 1955-64.	<i>NCCOP</i>	1965	12	6	
NATIONAL COUNCIL OF SOCIAL SERVICE. Statutory Provisions for Old People.	<i>NCSS</i>	1962	2	0	
———Old People's Welfare Committees. Rev. edn.	<i>NCSS</i>	1965	1	3	
———Residential Homes for the Elderly.	<i>NCSS</i>	1966	4	0	
NATIONAL OLD PEOPLE'S WELFARE COUNCIL. Annual Report 1964-65.	<i>NCSS</i>	1965	1	6	
———Clubs for the Elderly.	<i>NCSS</i>	1966	3	6	
TOWNSEND, PETER. The Last Refuge. Abridged edn.	<i>Routledge</i>	1964	1	10	0
TOWNSEND, PETER and WEDDERBURN, DOROTHY. The Aged in the Welfare State.	<i>Bell</i>	1965	1	1	0
Children					
HEYWOOD, J. S. Children in Care: the development of the service for the deprived child. Second rev. edn.	<i>Routledge</i>	1965	1	12	0
JAMES, T. E. Children and the Law.	<i>Pergamon Press</i>	1966	10	0	
LOWE, DAVID. Handicapped children and their families.	<i>Carnegie United Kingdom Trust</i>	1964	5	0	
STROUD, JOHN. An Introduction to the Child Care Service.	<i>Longmans</i>	1965	12	6	
Children in Britain. Reference pamphlet RF.P. 5236.	<i>COI</i>	1964	free		

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Children's Department of the Home Office 1961-63, Report of Work of.	<i>HMSO</i>	1964	7	0	
Children in the Care of Local Authorities in England and Wales, March 1963. Annual Statistics. Cmd. 2240.	<i>HMSO</i>	1964	1	3	
The Needs of Young Children in Care.	<i>HMSO</i>	1964	2	0	
Scottish Advisory Council on Child Care: Prevention of Neglect of Children. Cmd. 1966.	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	1	6	
Scottish Education Department. Child Care 1964.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965	2	0	
Education					
ALEXANDER, Sir WILLIAM. Education in England: the National System—How it Works. Second edn.	<i>Newnes</i>	1964	1	5	0
ARGLES, MICHAEL. South Kensington to Robbins: An Account of Technical and Scientific Education since 1851.	<i>Longmans</i>	1964	1	1	0
ARMYTAGE, W. H. G. Four Hundred Years of English Education.	<i>Cambridge University Press</i>	1964	1	15	0
ASSOCIATION OF COMMONWEALTH UNIVERSITIES. Commonwealth Universities Yearbook, 1966.	<i>The Association</i>	1966	6	6	0
ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS IN COLLEGES AND DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION. Handbook on Training for Teaching. Fourth edn.	<i>Methuen</i>	1964	2	10	0
BARON, GEORGE. A Bibliographical Guide to the English Educational System. Third edn.	<i>Athlone Press</i>	1965	15	0	
BRITISH COUNCIL. Annual Report 1964-65.	<i>British Council</i>	1965	2	6	
BROOK, G. L. The Modern University.	<i>Deutsch</i>	1965	1	5	0
DENT, H. C. <i>Editor</i> . Year Book of Technical Education and Careers in Industry, 1966.	<i>Black</i>	1966	2	10	0
DOUGLAS, J. W. B. Home and School.	<i>MacGibbon & Kee</i>	1964	1	16	0
Education Committees Year Book, 1965-66.	<i>Councils and Education Press</i>	1965	2	2	0
GROSS, RICHARD E. <i>Editor</i> . British Secondary Education.	<i>OUP</i>	1965	1	10	0
JACKSON, STEPHEN. Special Education in England and Wales.	<i>OUP</i>	1966	13	6	
LESTER SMITH, W. O. Education: An Introductory Survey.	<i>Penguin</i>	1962	3	6	
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF ADULT EDUCATION. Adult Education in the United Kingdom: A Directory of Organisations. <i>Annual</i> .	<i>National Institute of Adult Education</i>	1965	8	6	
PEDLEY, ROBIN. The Comprehensive School.	<i>Penguin</i>	1963	3	6	
REEVES, MARJORIE, <i>Editor</i> . Eighteen Plus: Unity and Diversity in Higher Education.	<i>Faber</i>	1965	1	5	0
RICHMOND, W. K. Teachers and Machines.	<i>Collins</i>	1965	1	5	0
TAYLOR, WILLIAM. The Secondary Modern School.	<i>Faber</i>	1963	1	12	6
Annual Reports:					
Department of Education and Science (England and Wales): Education in 1965. Cmd. 2938.	<i>HMSO</i>	1966	9	6	
Statistics of Education (in three parts)					
Part I (1964)	<i>HMSO</i>	1965	15	0	
Part II (1964)	<i>HMSO</i>	1965	1	7	6
Part III (1964)	<i>HMSO</i>	1966	12	6	

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The Health of the School Child. Report of the Chief Medical Officer of the Department of Education and Science. <i>Biennial</i> . For 1962 and 1963.	<i>HMSO</i>	1964	12	6	
Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland: Education in Northern Ireland 1963-64. Cmd. 476.	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1965	10	6	
Education Statistics No. 1.	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1965	12	6	
Scottish Education Department: Education in Scotland in 1964. Cmd. 2600.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965	9	6	
Primary Education in Scotland.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965	10	6	
The Certificate of Secondary Education. Some Suggestions for Teachers and Examiners. Examinations Bulletin No. 1.	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	10	0	
Day Release. Report of a Committee set up by the Minister of Education (Henniker-Heaton Report).	<i>HMSO</i>	1964	3	0	
Education in Britain. Reference pamphlet R.F.P. 4751.	<i>COI.</i>	1964		free	
Half our Future. Report of the Central Advisory Council for Education (England). (Newsom Report).	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	8	6	
Higher Education (Robbins Report). Cmd. 2154.	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	15	0	
Higher Education. Government Statement on the Robbins Report. Cmd. 2165.	<i>HMSO</i>	1963		8	
Higher Education in Northern Ireland (Lockwood Report). Cmd. 475.	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1965	1	0	0
Higher Education in Northern Ireland: Government Statement on the Lockwood Report. Cmd. 480.	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1965		6	
Public Education in Scotland. Rev. edn.	<i>HMSO</i>	1961	4	0	
Universities in Britain. Reference paper R.5520.	<i>COI</i>	1965		free	
University Development 1957-62. Cmd. 2267.	<i>HMSO</i>	1964	15	0	
<i>Youth Services</i>					
COOKE, DOUGLAS, <i>Editor</i> . Youth Organisations of Great Britain 1965.	<i>Jordan</i>	1965	19	6	
Duke of Edinburgh's Award Scheme: Report for 1964-1965.	<i>Duke of Edinburgh's Award Office</i>	1965		free	
HOGAN, J. M. The future of the Youth Service.	<i>Leeds University, Institute of Education</i>	1965	2	6	
MORSE, MARY. The Unattached.	<i>Penguin</i>	1965	3	6	
NATIONAL COUNCIL OF SOCIAL SERVICE. Young People and Voluntary Service.	<i>NCSS</i>	1965	2	0	
STANDING CONFERENCE OF NATIONAL VOLUNTARY YOUTH ORGANISATIONS. Annual Report and Directory, 1964-65.	<i>NCSS</i>	1965		free	
Development of the Youth Service. Cmd. 424.	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1961	1	3	
Youth Service in England and Wales (Albemarle Report). Cmd. 929.	<i>HMSO</i>	1960	8	6	
Youth Services in Britain. Reference paper R.5506.	<i>COI</i>	1963		free	
Planning and Housing					
Annual Reports:					
Ministry of Housing and Local Government. For 1964. Cmd. 2668.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965	6	6	
Scottish Development Department. For 1964. Cmd. 2635.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965	9	6	

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Ministry of Health and Local Government (Northern Ireland). For 1962 and 1963. Cmd. 474.	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1964		10	0	
<i>Planning</i>						
BURNS, WILFRED. New Towns for Old. The Technique of Urban Renewal.	<i>Leonard Hill</i>	1963		3	0	0
CULLINGWORTH, J. B. Town and Country Planning in England and Wales.	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1964		1	16	0
GIBBERD, FREDERICK. Town Design. Fourth edn.	<i>Architectural Press</i>	1963		3	13	6
HEAP, DESMOND. An Outline of Planning Law. Fourth edn.	<i>Sweet & Maxwell</i>	1963		1	15	0
KEEBLE, LEWIS. Principles and Practice of Town and Country Planning. Third edn.	<i>Estates Gazette</i>	1964		2	15	0
OSBORN, Sir FREDERIC J. and WHITTICK, ARNOLD. The New Towns: the Answer to Megalopolis.	<i>Leonard Hill</i>	1963		3	15	0
TETLOW, JOHN and GOSS, ANTHONY. Homes, Towns and Traffic.	<i>Faber</i>	1964		2	5	0
TOWN AND COUNTRY PLANNING ASSOCIATION. Town and Country Planning. <i>Monthly</i> .	<i>T and CPA</i>				2	6
Traffic in Towns (Buchanan Report).	<i>HMSO</i>	1963		2	10	0
Annual Reports:						
Commission for the New Towns. For 1964-65.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965		5	0	
Development Corporations of the New Towns:						
England and Wales. For 1964-65.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965		1	12	6
Scotland. For 1964-65.	<i>HMSO</i>	1966		15	0	
National Parks Commission. For 1964-65.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965		10	0	
Nature Conservancy. For 1963-64.	<i>HMSO</i>	1964		13	0	
Administration of Town and Country Planning in Northern Ireland. Cmd. 465.	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1964		1	0	
Belfast Regional Survey and Plan: Recommendations and Conclusions. Cmd. 451.	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1963		3	6	
National Park Guides.	<i>HMSO</i>			5	0	
The Future of Development Plans.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965		10	0	
Planning Bulletins Nos. 1-7.	<i>HMSO</i>	1962		2	0	
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		1965		7	6	
The New Towns of Britain. Reference pamphlet R.F.P. 4506.	<i>COI</i>	1964			free	
Town and Country Planning in Britain. Reference pamphlet R.F.P. 5355.	<i>COI</i>	1962			free	
<i>Housing</i>						
CULLINGWORTH, J. B. English Housing Trends: a report on the Rowntree Trust Housing Study.	<i>Bell</i>	1965		10	6	
MORRIS, R. N. and MOGEY, JOHN. The Sociology of Housing.	<i>Routledge</i>	1965		2	2	0
NEEDLEMAN, LIONEL. The Economics of Housing.	<i>Staples Press</i>	1965		2	2	0
TOWN AND COUNTRY PLANNING ASSOCIATION. Housing in Britain.	<i>T and CPA</i>	1964		5	0	0
Homes for Today and Tomorrow (Parker Morris Report).	<i>HMSO</i>	1961		4	0	

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Housing Design Bulletins Nos. 1-9.	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	1	3	
		to		to	
		1965	8	6	
Housing in Britain: A Short Account. Reference paper R.5687.	<i>COI</i>	1964		free	
Housing Returns for England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. <i>Quarterly</i> .	<i>HMSO</i>		1	6	
				to	
			2	6	
The Housing Programme 1965-70. Cmnd. 2838.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965	1	9	
The Scottish Housing Programme, 1965-70. Cmnd. 2837.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965	1	6	
The 1965 Rent Act and You. Questions answered for Tenant and Landlord (England and Wales).	<i>HMSO</i>	1965		9	
Report of the Committee on Housing in Greater London (Milner Holland Report). Cmnd. 2605.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965	1	2	6
Employment					
Ministry of Labour Gazette. <i>Monthly</i> .	<i>HMSO</i>		3	6	
Labour Relations and Conditions of Work in Britain. Reference pamphlet RF.P. 5120.	<i>COI</i>	1964		free	
Central Youth Employment Executive. The Future Development of the Youth Employment Service.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965	6	6	
Work of the Youth Employment Service 1962-65.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965	4	6	
Treatment of Offenders					
DE-LA-NOY, MICHAEL. Young once only: a study of boys on probation.	<i>Epworth Press</i>	1965	17	6	
DOWNES, DAVID. The Delinquent Solution.	<i>Routledge</i>	1965	2	2	0
ELKIN, WINIFRED A. The English Penal System.	<i>Penguin</i>	1957	3	6	
FIELD, XENIA. Under Lock and Key.	<i>Max Parrish</i>	1963	1	10	0
KING, JOAN F. S., <i>Editor</i> . The Probation Service. Second edn.	<i>Butterworth</i>	1964	1	12	6
WATSON, JOHN A. F. The Child and the Magistrate. Rev. edn.	<i>Cape</i>	1965	1	15	0
MCCCLINTOCK, F. H. with WALKER, M. A. and SAVILL, N. C. Attendance Centres.	<i>Macmillan</i>	1961	1	15	0
The Adult Offender. Cmnd. 2852.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965	1	3	
The After-Care and Supervision of Discharged Prisoners. Report of the Sub-Committee of the Advisory Council on the Treatment of Offenders.	<i>HMSO</i>	1964	3	0	
Organisation of After-care in Scotland.	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	2	0	
Annual Reports:					
Council of the Central After-Care Association. For 1964.	<i>HMSO</i>	1966	2	0	
Prisons and Borstals, 1963. Cmnd. 2381.	<i>HMSO</i>	1964	8	6	
Prisons in Scotland. For 1963. Cmnd. 2367.	<i>HMSO</i>	1964	4	6	
Children and Young Persons, Report of the Committee on (Ingleby Report). Cmnd. 1191.	<i>HMSO</i>	1960	10	0	
Children and Young Persons, Scotland (Kilbrandon Report). Cmnd. 2306.	<i>HMSO</i>	1964	7	0	

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The Child, the Family and the Young Offender. Cmnd. 2742.	<i>HMSO</i>	1965	1	6	
The Organisation of the Prison Medical Service. Report of the Working Party.	<i>HMSO</i>	1964	1	3	
The Organisation of Work for Prisoners. Report of the Advisory Council on the Employment of Prisoners.	<i>HMSO</i>	1964	1	6	
Persistent Criminals. Studies in Causes of Delinquency and the Treatment of Offenders.	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	1	5	0
Probation Service in England and Wales.	<i>HMSO</i>	1964	2	0	
Report of the Departmental Committee on the Probation Service. Cmnd. 1650.	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	11	0	
The Treatment of Offenders in Britain. Reference pamphlet RF.P. 4414.	<i>COI</i>	1964	free		
The War against Crime in England and Wales, 1959-1964. Cmnd. 2296.	<i>HMSO</i>	1964	1	3	
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